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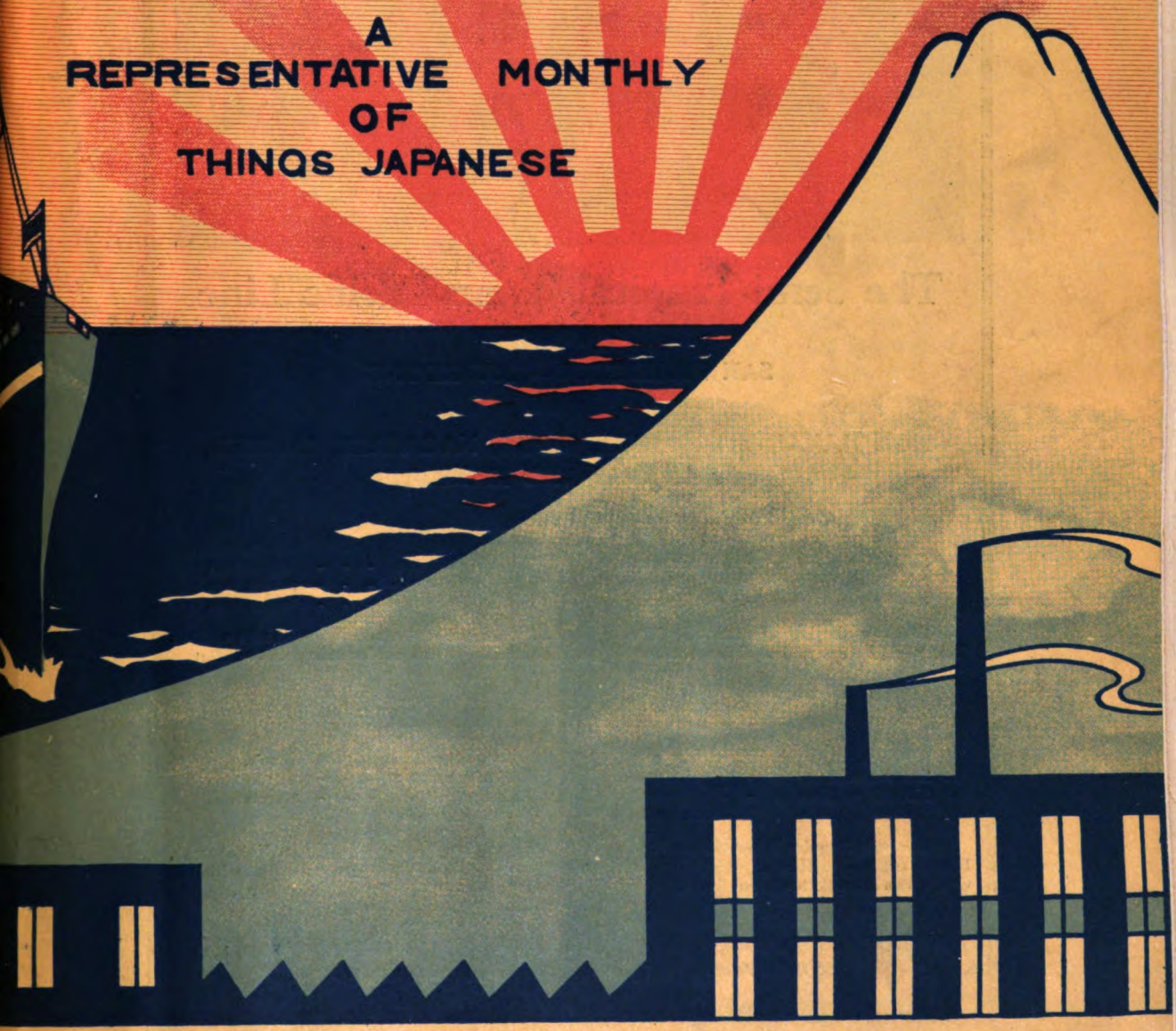
A
REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY
OF
THINGS JAPANESE



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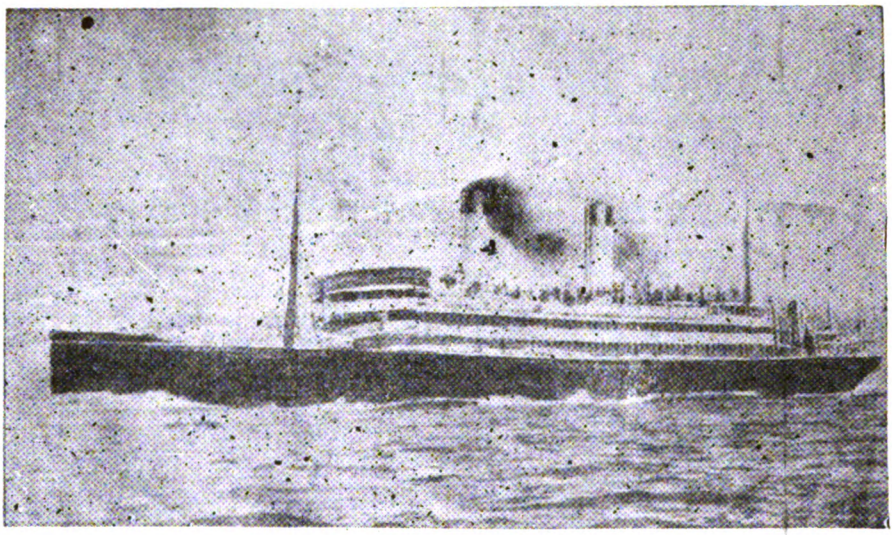

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

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The Late Prince Matsukata.

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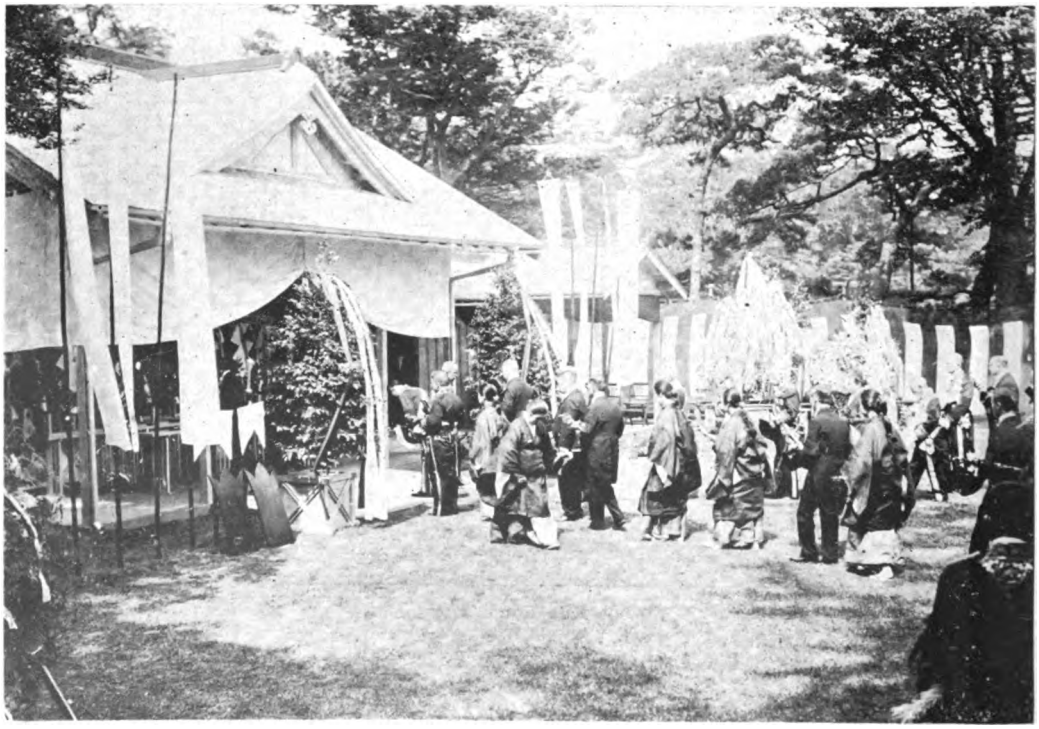
The Forty-ninth Special Session of the Diet.



The Funeral of the Late Prince Matsukata.

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

VOL. XIV AUGUST, 1924 No. XII

THE MONTH IN PROGRESS

THE EDITOR'S DIARY

MAY 15.—The Japanese exclusion measure passed both houses of Congress in the U.S.A. to take effect on July 1.

May 17.--One of the American world fliers arrived at Kashiwabara Bay and another at Kataoka Bay, Chishima.

May 19.—Baron Saito, the Governor-General of Chosen, with his suite of over 30 persons, was steaming down the Yalu River on a tour of inspection of the frontier, when, at a point near Kozanchin, Heian-Hokudo, shortly after 9 o'clock, over 10 bandits appeared from the hills on the Chinese side and fired at the boats of the Baron and his suite. The latter returned the rifle fire and succeeded in driving away the would-be-assissins, who hurt no one.

May 20.—The American Ambassador, Mr. Woods is reported to have tendered his resignation to President Cooridge.

May 21.—A New York despatch reports the acceptance of the resignation of Mr. Woods by the President.

May 22.—The three American world-fliers reached Kasumigaura at 5.25 P.M. amidst the enthusiastic welcome of many Japanese Government officials and private persons.

May 24.—The basic terms of the Russo-Japanese negotiations were drafted.

May 25.—A union of ex-soldiers in Tokyo held a meeting at the Yasukuni Shrine, Tokyo to pass a resolution against the anti-Japanese hill in the United States.

In the north of Chichibu, Saitama-ken, a hail-storm occurred. That lasted over an hour, inflicting severe damage on the mulberry crop.

May 28.—A Washington despatch reports the signing of the immigration law by President Coolidge on the 26th. The Japanese Government decided at an extraordinary cabinet meeting held on the 28th to lodge a protest with the United States. The protest was telegraphically sent by the Foreign Minister Baron Matsui to Ambassaeor Hanihara.

May 31.—A series of Imperial banquets will be held in the Homei Hall of the Imperial Palace from to-day to June 4th in celebration of the marriage of H.I.H. the Crown Prince with H.I.H. Princess Nagako. At the first dinner given to-night, about 300 foreign and Japanese officers and officials were invited.

A man was found dead in the grounds of Viscount Inouye's mansion, Enoki-zaka-machi, Akasaka, Tokyo. He committed suicide in his indignation over the Japanese exclusion bill in the United States. He had three letters in his pocket.

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One was addressed to Ambassador Woods. His name is unknown.

Mr. Woods, with his wife and her mother, is to leave Tokyo for home on the morning of June 5th and will embark on the President McKinley which sails from Yokohama at 3 P.M. on the 6th.

June 5.—This morning the Tokyo Municipal celebration of the Imperial wedding was held in the Imperial Palace grounds. Their Highnesses appeared in the pavilion at 10.20 A.M., when tens of thousands of citizens gathered in front of the pavilion and cheered "banzai." Mayor Nagata read a congratulatory address, which was followed by an Imperial message read by His Highness in a loud and clear voice, which was distinctly heard in every corner of the grounds. The meeting was closed at 10.50 A.M., when three cheers of "banzai" were given for the Imperial couple.

The whole city celebrated the occasion. Various entertainments were held everywhere, all the streets were beautifully decorated with flags and paper lanterns. Decorated tram-cars were run.

At 1 P.M., a national meeting was held over the American question, at the Kokugi-kwan, Ryogoku, when all the political parties, 18 unions formed on account of the American question, students,' labour and other unions were represented. Every orator spoke with fervency, calling upon the Americans to reconsider.

June 7.—Premier Viscount Kiyoura proceeded to the Akasaka Palace at 4.03 P.M. and presented the resignation of his cabinet to the Prince Regent, as he saw the impossibility of remaining in office with the result of the general election which went against the Government. The Prince Regent then summoned Count Hirata, the Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, and questioned him on the matter. Consequently, Marquis Tokugawa, the Grand Chamberlain, was sent to consult Prince Saionji in Kyoto.

The ladies and gentlemen in the dancing hall of the Imperial Hotel were taken by surprise by the raid of 17 members of the Taikosha, advocating nationalism, who performed sword-dances before them. The intrusion was caused by indignation over the American exclusion bill, and some Japanese young men and women's indulgence in dancing, apparently indifferent to the national peril which confronts Japan.

Common School Boys and Girls Welcoming American Aviators Landing at Kuriles.

Mr. Robindranath Tagore, a famous Indian poet, arrived in Tokyo at 8.45 P.M. from Western Japan, after visiting Nara and Osaka. It is eight years since he last came to this country.

June 8.—Captain D'Oisy, a French round-the-world flier, reached Hiroshima at 10.07 A.M. from Taikyu, Korea, which he left at 6.20 A.M.

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June 9.—Viscount Kato, the leader of tne Kensei-kwai, repaired to the Akasaka Palace at 11.24 A.M., summoned by the Prince Regent, and was commanded to organize a new Cabinet. He left the palace at 11.40 A.M.

Capitan D'Oisy left the Osaka Parade Ground at 8.34 A.M. and reached Tokorozawa at 11.50 A.M., where he was welcomed by many Japanese Government officers and officials and private people.

Mr. R. Tagore, lectured at the Tokyo Imperial University at 3.30 P.M. In the course of his speech, he alluded to a great affront recently received by Japan from another country, stating that he and all his countrymen in India were indignant at it.

June 11.—Viscount Kato, the leader of the Kensei-kwai, proceeded to the Akasaka Imperial Palace at 9.55 A.M. and presented the Prince Regent with a list of the names of the new Cabinet. The list was approved by the Prince Regent, and Viscount Kato left the Imperial Palace. At 1.30 P.M., he again repaired to the Imperial Palace, accompanied by the Cabinet ministers - elect. Immediately, the installation ceremony took place. The members of the new Cabinet are:

Viscount Kato, Premier.
Baron K. Shidehara, Minister of Foreign Affairs.
R. Wakatsuki, Minister of Home Affairs.
Y. Hamaguchi, Minister of Finance.
General K. Ugaki, Minister of Army.
Admiral Takarabe, Minister of Navy.
S. Yokota, Minister of Justice.
R. Okada, Minister of Education.
K. Takahashi, Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.
T. Inukai, Minister of Communications.
M. Sengoku, Minister of Railways.

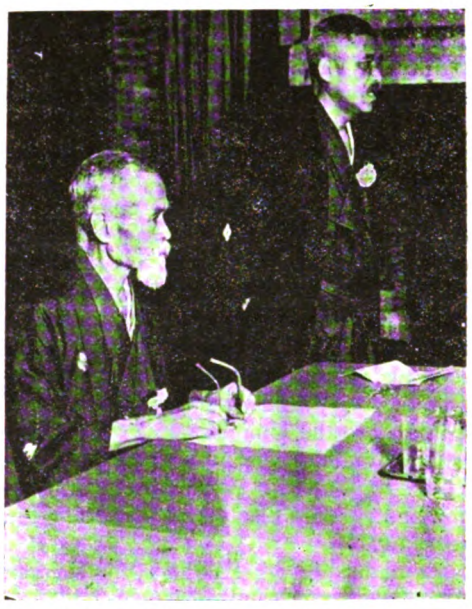
At the same time the resignation of the Kiyoura Cabinet was accepted.

June 19.—The reply to the protest presented against the Japanese exclusion bill by the Japanese Government to the American Government was handed by the latter to the Japanese Ambassador, Mr. Hanihara by the Secretary of State on the 16th. The text of this reply was published by the Foreign Office.

June 20.—Mr. Yoshizawa, the Japanese Minister at Peking, who was conducting the Russo - Japanese negotiations reached Tokyo at 8.45 P.M., summonded by the Foreign Minister, to talk over the question.

Five persons at Higashi-Hamana-mura, Shizuoka-ken, found to be infected with pest.

June 21.—The question of the leadership of the Seiyu-honto was concluded by the acceptance of the post by Mr. Tokonami.



Mr. Tokonami, the Leader of the Seiyu-Honto, at its General Meeting.

June 22.—Mr. R. Tagore left Japan for home by the "Suwa-Maru."

Capitain D'Oisy, the French flier, who was decorated with the fifth order of the Rising Sun, sailed for home, promising to come again in January next.

June 25.—The 49th session of the Imperial Diet was convoked.

June 26.—Mr. Roy Chapman Andrews, at the head of an American Mongolian scientific expedition reached Yokohama by the "President Cleveland." He

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said he was going to Peking to set about preparations there for the expedition to Mongolia to be made next year.

June 27.—The Japan Christian Association held a general meeting and carried a resolution by a great majority to decline receiving the donation of 2,000,000 yen, which it has received yearly from America, upon the expiration of the present term in September next.

June 28.—The opening ceremony of the special sessien of the Imperial Diet was held in the House of Peers in the presence of the Prince Regent.

June 30.—Mr. Alexander A. I. Mosjuhin, a leading Russian musician, arrived at Tokyo Station at 9.20 A.M., to give concerts at the Hochi Auditorium.

July 1.—It being the day fixed for the enforcement of the new American immigration act, the nation was much perturbed. A national meeting was held at the Zojo Temple, Shiba and a big oratorial meeting on Sanno Hill, Akasaka, on the American question. Similar meetings were held in other places in the country. Resolutions were passed at the meetings calling for the provision of discrimination against the Japanese in the law to be abolished; and it was telegraphically conveyed to the President and both houses of Congress of the United States.

The Imperial Diet was opened. Both houses took up at first the American question and adopted resolutions deploring the new law.

At about 12.30 P.M., a young man entered the American Embassy grounds and tore down the American flag and fled with it. A policeman pursued him but could not arrest him. The matter was much regretted by the Japanese Government, and the offender was thoroughly searched for by the police. At 4 P.M., Mr. Jefferson Caffery, charge d'Affaires at the American Embassy, visited the Foreign Minister, Baron Shidehara, at the Foreign Office, and inquired about the affair. The Cabinet held an extraordinary meeting to discuss the steps to be adopted. At 6.50 P.M., Baron Shidehara visited Mr. Caffery at the Imperial Hotel and apologized for the incident.

The metric system was put into operation.

July 2.—The offender in the American flag affair was arrested in Osaka, and the flag carried away by him was delivered to the American Embassy. A Washington despatch states that the State Department declared that responsibility for the attack against the American flag in Tokyo lies upon "irresponsible individuals" and that that Government attaches no more importance to the incident than to others of similar nature which have been reported since the immigration law was passed.

At 10.40 P.M., Prince Matsukata died.

July 2.—Sub-Lieutenant C. Ura was killed at the Kagamigahara Aviation School. He was descending from a height of 300 metrcs, when the machine suddenly crashed.

July 5.—The Lower House approved the appropriatiou of 40,000 yen for the state funeral of the late Prince Matsukata.

Major Maclaren, a British flier, left Shanghai at 9 A.M. and reached Kagoshima at 5 P.M. after flying the distance of 870 kilometres in seven hours. He and Flying Officer Plenderleith were welcomed by 50,000 people who gathered on the shore waving the British flag.

July 7.—Major Maclaren left Kushimoto at 9 A.M. and reached Tsuchiura at 2.48 P.M.

The state funeral of the late Prince Matsukata took place at the Matsukata took place at the Matsukata residence at 8 A.M. The Chamberlains to the Emperor, the Empress and the Crown Prince and Prince and Princess Kan-in worshipped at the altar. The ceremony ended at 1 P.M. The coffin left for the Aoyama Cemetery at 2 P.M. After the interment ceremony, the veteran statesman of the Meiji Restoration was laid eternally to rest in the bosom of the earth, at 5 P.M.

July 13.—The first Feast of Lanterns (O-Bon) was held on the former site of the Military Clothing Office, where about 35,000 persons were burnt to death in last year's earthquake. At the repository of ashes there was offered incense and

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flowers by the Tokyo Municipality and there was worship by an endless number of the bereaved families amid the chanting of the Buddhist sacred books.

July 15.--Viscount K. Kuroda, the first Japanese artist in foreign style painting, died of illness at his residence, Kogai-cho, Azabu, Tokyo. He was a great benefactor of the Japanese artistic world, which was led by him to its present prosperity.

July 16.—The British round-the-world fliers were missing after leaving Toshimoe at 5.30 A.M. The *Hamakaze* and *Isokaze*, Japanese destroyers, were searching their whereabouts.

July 18.—The missing British fliers were found to have taken to the water at Tokoton Bay on the west coast of Urufsupu Island, Chishima.

July 20.—The special session of the Imperial Diet was closed on the 18th and its closing ceremony was held in the House of Peers on the 19th.

The *kawabiraki* (the opening of the river season) festival was held at Ryogoku on the Sumida as usual this evening. It has been an annual function in Tokyo since the Tokugawa period. Thousands of set and other fireworks were sent up late into the night. The visitors were unusually few.

July 27.—The *Tairei-Maru*, a steamer of 1,256 tons belonging to the Kita-Nippon Kisen Kaisha, Otaru on her way from Osaka to Otaru collided with the *Shinpo-Maru*, a steamer of 4,736 tons owned by the Kishimoto Kisen Kaisha, Kobe, at a point 3 miles off the Note Light House at 8.20 P.M., and sank in 25 minutes. Only 25 persons were rescued out of 145 passengers and 42 crew.

July 29.—Mr. Yoshizawa, the Japanese Minister to China, left Tokyo for Peking at 8.30 P.M. He returned here on the 20th ult. to report on and arrange for the Russo-Japanese negotiations.

July 31.—The Law Raising the Import Duty on Luxurious Articles was promulgated and put in force at once in Japan and her territories.

August 3.—Mr. Hanihara, the Japanese Ambassador to the United States, came back by the *Korea-Maru* at 8 A.M.

August 4.—The first meeting of the Russo-Japanese Conference was held at Peking at 4 P.M., when Mr. Yoshizawa, the Japanese Minister to Peking, handed to Mr. Karakhan an important note frankly stating Japan's demands.

General Eduard Hay, Mexican Minister, and Madame Hat Just before Leaving for the Imperial Palace.

August 9.—Gas exploded in the Iriyama Colliery, Fukushima-ken, suffocating to death about 70 miners working in the pits.

August 12.—An Imperial ordinance relating to undersecretaries and political Councillors was issued. The nominees to the posts were accepted by the Cabinet Council held to-day. They were later sanctioned by the Prince Regent and were publicly announced.

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Prince Matsukata

PRINCE MATSUKATA died after a long illness, at 10.40 p.m., July 2, 1924, at the age of 92. Upon hearing of his critical condition, H.I.M. the Emperor graciously promoted his court rank in recognition of his meritorious services rendered to the State since the Restoration.

The Prince was celebrated as a veteran statesman of the Restoration and as a benefactor of the Japanese financial world. He was a loyal subject serving successively the Emperor Meiji, the present Emperor and the Prince Regent.

The fifth son of Z. Matsukata, a retainer of the Kagoshima clan, he was born in Kagoshima in the sixth year of Tenpo (1835 A.D.) From his childhood, he was trained in the arts of war and peace. He was adept at archery.

At the age of 20, he was employed in the office of the lord and served faithfully for several years, at the end of whieh he was granted a bonus of 130 *ryo*. He paid off his late father's debt with the money, and his dutiful conduct was admired by his friends. Later, he was promoted to be secretary to the *karo*. He visited Kyoto as an attendant of Lord Shimazu in the third year of Bunkyu (1863), and travelled in Osaka and Fushimi to pacify his friends excited over the question of loyalty to the Emperor and the expulsion of foreigners. Subsequently, he was appointed a secretary to the lord, and then a local governor and the superintendent of the mercantile office. Some years later, he studied navigation in Nagasaki at the expense of his clan. He stayed there for two years and a half. In the meantime, the Restoration took place, and S. Azu, the Governor of Nagasaki, quitted the position. The public mind was agitated without a government to look after the people. Seeing this, Matsukata in consultation with S. Sasaki (Count Sasaki) re-established the Government office and properly dealt with urgent administative and diplomatic affairs. The expediency of his action met the approval of the Imperial Government at Tokyo, which appointed him the Governor of Hyuga Prefecture-a place which was very difficult to govern.

One of his meritorious deeds as the Governor was the setting up of an orphan asylum. There was prevalent the vicious custom of child desertion and abortion there. This Matsukata wished to reform. He and his wife diligently visited pregnant women and nursed deserted children at the asylum, which was the first of the kind in Japan. Another of his achievements was in connection with the forgery of paper money in the Fukuoka clan. As the affair was considered serious, he privately came to Tokyo, where he discussed means to arrest the offenders with

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August 14.—Dr. S. Garcia Uriburu, the new Argentine Minister to Japan, arrived in Tokyo and put at the Imperial Hotel.

August 15.—At about 3 A.M., Tokyo citizens were startled by a rather severe earthquake shock they having been growing very nervous as the first anniversary of the great earthquake was imminent. Many ran out of doors in confusion. The seismic centre was Kashima-nada and the area affected was very extensive. The people were alarmed by a seismologist's assertion that it was the activity of a new seismic zone.

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Lord Iwakura. He got the consent of the Government to deal with the affair entirely at his discretion, and came back. After much trouble he succeeded in arresting a workman, a conspirator in the scandal. and making him confess. Through this confession, the police seized apparatus for forging and other exidence in the Fukuoka Prefectural Office. He built a wharf in the harbour of Beppu, opened salt. fields on the sea-coast and carried out riparian works, all of which have considerably benefitted the local people since then.

In July, 1871, Matsukata was appointed to the Department of Finance, and one month later, he was promoted to the head of the its Taxation Bureau, which began his career as a financial official of the Imperial Government. He devoted his energies mostly to the revision of the land tax law. He personally investigated it, and the Land Tax Revision Bureau was established on his proposal.

The national expenditure greatly expanded on account of the Saga rebellion and the Chinese complications that the national finances were in extreme straits. Matsukata took pains to improve them. He found the Financial Law incomplete and revised it. This revised law made the foundation of the existing financial system of the Japanese Government. In October, 1874, the fiscal year of the Government was changed to beginning July and ending June through his advice.

In August, 1885, a Japanese warship was fired on by Koreans. This brought the relations between Japan and Korea to the verge of rupture. The financial authorities were at a loss as to how to defray the cost of war. The Prince took advantage of this in attempting to carry out a reform in the fief system. He eagerly proposed this as an easy means of meeting the war cost. The proposal was accepted by the Cabinet and the fife system was reformed in August, 1876.

He turned his attention to encouraging industry. He planned the reclamation work of Lake Inawashiro, Iwashiro Province, as a means to provide ex-samurai with work. He personally inspected the place and dcsigned and completed the work under his personal control. Many ex-samurai from various provinces came and were engaged in the reclamation work. A vast stretch of fertile plain was thus reclaimed.

In 1878, the Prince visited the Paris World's Exhibition as the Vice-Chief Commissioner of Japan and came back through England, Germany, Holland, Beligium and Italy. Being a secretary of the Finance Department then, he investigated financial and industrial subjects in France. He was intimate with the French Finance Minister and was much enlightened by his economic and financial views. The experience was the basis of his later distinction as a great financier of the Meiji era and the builder of Japan's financial foundation. He also carefully investigated the national bank system in Belgium, and this banking knowledge was embodied in the form of the Bank of Japan some years later. From this, it may be seen how much the economic and financial knowledge of the Prince were enhanced by his foreign travels. The adoption of the competitive exhibition system and the foundation of a spinning mill in Aichi Prefecture are thought to be the result of his foreign tour, too. He travelled again in Europe some years later.

In 1880, he was appointed the Minister of Home Affairs and in Octcber, 1881, he was transferred to the Finance Department as its head in succession to Marquis

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Okuma. His new position offered him a chance of attempting to reform the paper money system, which had been a long standing question.

As soon as he got the appointment, he set about exchanging inconvertible notes, preliminarily to the execution of the convertible note law. He was greatly determined in the matter. He personally laid his view before the Emperor Meiji and was deeply moved by the Imperial approval. He was resolved to go through fire and water in bringing his attempt to success.

The British Minister Sir Harry Parkes having studied carefully Japanese financial affairs during his stay in the Orient, regretted their disorganization and stated his views for their reform often to the Japanese Government, but in vain. Soon after his appointment to the portfolio of Finance the Prince visited the British Minister, whom he thanked for his valuable advice and spoke of his determination regarding paper currency reform, wishing to realize the object simply by means of exchange without resorting to a foreign loan. Sir Harry at fitst appeared to be in doubt as to the Minister's success, but was very glad to see later the success of his plan and heartily congratulated him.

Matsukata discontinued the issue of reserve paper money for meeting the temporary shortage of money in the Treasury, and called in the notes in circulation. He replaced them with Treasury Bills. For re adjusting note issues, he considered it advisable to bring about flexible circulation of money in the country and to simplify the receipts and payments of the Treasury by establishing a central bank, and organized the Bank of Japan in 1882. Soon afterwards, he revised the National Bank Law, and provided rules for the withdrawal of bank notes by exchanging them for the Bank of Japan's convertible notes. In May, 1885, convertible notes were first issued by the central bank, which commenced exchanging specie for paper money on January 1st, 1886. The convertible note system was thus carried into effect. This alone makes the name of Prince Matsukata immortal in Japanese financial history. When he was the Finance Minister in 1881, such a balance existed between silver and paper money that 1 yen silver was exchanged for 1.80 yen paper money. Upon the adoption of the convertible note system, both were at par.

Encouraged by the success of his paper money re-adjustment, Matsukata proceeded to entirely withdraw bank notes and replace them with convertible notes. This scheme was carried out successfully. This completed the consolidation of the paper money system.

Another distinguished service rendered by the Prince as a financier was the foundation of the gold standard policy, as the head of the Matsukata-Okuma Cabinet in 1896. Some financial authorities opposed it most stoutly, but it did not daunt the courage of Matsukata and he resolutely carried it out. This wise policy solidified the financial foundation of Japan and elevated her international economic position. Other noteworthy achievements of the Prince include the unification of the cash transactions of all the departments in the Financial Department, the re-adjustment of financial laws and regulations into the Law and Regulations of Accounts, the issue of the Consolidation Bond Law for the conversion of high interest bonds, the adoption of simple and systematic methods of handling of national bonds and the abolition, improvement and enforcement of various tax laws and regulations. The establishment of the Hypothec Bank of Japan and the Agricultural and Commercial Banks was also due to him.

In 1890, the Constitution was put into operation, and the opening ceremony of the first session of the Diet was held on November 29th. Matsukata helped the Yamagata Cabinet in having the Budget approved by the Diet. In the following year, he formed the first Matsukata Cabinet and held the portfolio of Finance besides the Premiership. Soon afterwards, the Konan affair occurred which was followed by the great earthquake and conflagration in the Nobi District. Matsukata was very anxious in dealing with state affairs. Moreover, the 2nd session of the

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Diet was dissolved. In 1892, third session of the Diet was called and was closed peacefully. Soon thereafter Matsukata resigned. He visited the district devastated by the earthquake and fire immediately after its occurrence. He saw the seriousness of the disaster and at once decided on the appropriation of 1,500,000 yen out of the Treasury on the Cabinet's responsibility. This was the first expenditure of Government money on the Cabinet's responsibility.

When the Japan-China War broke out, Matsukata supported the Ministry from the outside. He was appointed later the Minister of Finance, as the unusual demands on the Government's finances caused by the war called for his exceptional financial ability.

Then, the Matsukata-Okuma Cabinet was formed in succession to the Ito Ministry, and the Prince became again the Premier. It was then that he put into operation the gold standard system. The Cabinet fell in a very short period and was succeeded by the Yamagata Ministry, in which he was the Finance Minister. In October, 1900, he resigned. He was then appointed the President of the Japan Red Cross Society, in which position he remained for the ten years beginning 1902. He worked diligently in the interests of the society and built up its estate of 15,000,000 yen. This property has since been invaluable in the society's activities. At the time of the great earthquake in September last, the society appropriated 5,000,000 yen, which was devoted to its successful work of relief of the sufferers from the catastrophe. This might be described as the gift of the late Prinee Matsukata, who wisely built the foundation for it. For a time afterwards, he was the Lord Keeper of the Imperial Seal. After he resigned this post he led a retired life, until he attained the age of 92 and died in rarely great happiness.

This is but a rough sketch of the Prince's life. He was first connected with the financial world of Japan in 1871 and devoted his whole energy to the management of financial affairs of the state for the next thirty years, until the present financial basis of Japan was built up. These meritorious services make him first in the Japanese financial world since the Restoration. We profoundly regret the demise of this great statesmen.

His funeral took place at the State's expense on July 12th and he was laid to rest in the Aoyama Cemetery.

Toasting for American Aviators.

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The Self-Government System of Yedo

FOR a time after the great earthquake last September, wild rumours were in the air in Tokyo in regard to the security of the citizens. This drove every street in the Metropolis to guard itself, distrusting the police, who were greatly incapacitated by the great suffering from the catastrophe. This self-guarding was conducted by the youths or the family heads of the streets, who watched all night in alternation.

The foreigners who had experienced the disorder in San Francisco after its disastrous earthquake, wondered at the comparatively few crimes attending one of similarly serious dimensions in Tokyo. This we attribute to the self-guard system for the main part, which maintained good order in the city.

This self-guard system reminds us of that existing in Yedo during the Tokugawa period, and it illustrates how the Japanese are capable of organizing and operating successfally such a system.

In the Tokugawa period, samurai and tradesmen resided in quarters separated from each other by a very strict social distinction. The shogun resided where the present Imperial palace stands, surrounded by the official residences of the "rochu" (the ministors) and the "wakadoshiyori" (other senior officials), which were situated on the present sites of the Marunouchi Building, the Imperial Theatre and other edifices in the Marunouchi valley. The hilly districts such as Surugadai, Kanda and Ban-cho, Kojimachi at the rear of the castle were allotted to feudal lords and "hatamoto", the latter of which were direct feudatories of the shogun, for their residences. These residential quarters of the samurai lay distinctly apart from the business quarters.

There were in these residential quarters police boxes, or watch houses which were known as *tsuji-ban* in the former quarters and as *jishin-ban* in the latter. The *jishinban* means a self-guard, and is akin to the abovestated after-quake system.

The police system of Yedo consisted of *ometsuke*, a senior office in the Government, who patrolled the castle and residential quarters, and of two *machi-bugyo* doing the work of the present Metropolitan Police Superintendent - General. The *minami-machi-bugyo* (the Southern Governor) had his office at Sukiya-bashi and the *kita-machi-bugyo* (the Northern Governor) at Tokiwa-bashi. Each had 25 *yoriki* and 120 *doshin* under him, the former of which ranked with the present police superintendents, but with more power than them, and the latter with the present police inspectors. Twelve *yoriki* and 24 *doshin* patrolled the streets daily. Besides, there were 4 *doshin* patrolling privately, 8 *doshin* patrolling regularly and 12 *doshin* patrolling extraordinarily. These officials took charge of the affairs of public manners and ways, secret inquiries and arrests.

There was another office, whose duty it was to look after fires, robbery and rogues. The officials in charge patrolled the streets, accompanied by 10 *yoriki* and 30 *doshin*, seeing that there were no fires, arresting robbers and examining rascals.

These were all Government officials discharging their respective functions. There was a non-official position known as *machi-yakunin* (town officials). These were public officials, directing the self-governing body.

These public officials were made up of *machi-doshiyori*, *nanushi*, *gonin-nanushi* and *iye-nushi*.

Machi-doshiyori were three in number in Yedo. The position was hereditary since Tokugawa Iyeyasu (the founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate) established the Yedo Government. They took charge of general affairs in Yedo (excluding the residential quarters of samurai) under the command and supervision of the *machi-bugyo*, such as the transmission of ordinances, the appointment and dismissal of *nanushi*, the examination of weights and measures and water-works and the receipt

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and payment of taxes. They were paid for with the rents of lands, which they were given by the Government.

Nanushi, or *machi-nanushi* were street chiefs under *machi-doshiyori*. They controlled public affairs of the street under the direction of *machi-doshiyori*, and were empowered with the settlement of temporary quarrels, drunken brawls, disputes between employees and their guarantors, and the like.

The *machi-nanushi* was vested thus with police power to deal with these trivial affairs of daily occurrence, which are handled by the police at present. He jointly signed all the petitions and legal complaints from his street to share the responsibility to the Government. He was sometimes reprimanded for lack of control over his street affairs by the *machi-bugyo* in case of crimes occurring in it. It was therefore one of his duties to govern well his street.

The position was nominally elective but was practically hereditary. The electors were the street land and house owners, who chose and appointed one with the approval of the *machi-bugyo*, when it was necessary to select one. It was the custom to chose the heir of the last *nanushi*, unless he was unworthy of the position.

There were four kinds of *nanushi*, or *kusawake-nanushi*, whose position was hereditary from the founder of the street at the creation of Yedo and was more honourable than the three others, *furumachi-nanushi*, who belonged to an old family in the street, *hira-nanushi*, or common *nanushi* and *jisha-monzen-nanushi*, or the *nanushi* of a shrine or temple street.

In the eighth year of Kyoho (1723), or the time of the eighth shogun Yoshimune, the number of *nanushi* in Yedo was fixed at 268, some of whom governed more than one street and even 23 streets. Each *jisha-monzen-nanushi* had 40 streets under his control for the reason that the shrine or temple streets were usually much smaller than other streets. The yearly salary was 2 *ryo* 2 *bu* to 300 *ryo* (or 100 yen to 12,000 yen). The pay was too small to warrant a comfortable life for most of the men, and the position was simply honorary. The salaries were borne by the land house owners.

These 268 *nanushi* were combined into associations of 4-20 members, each association had a *nen-ban* and *tsuki-gyoji*. the former of which was selected yearly and the latter monthly. Both represented the associations, in matters concerning them and filled the vacancies of *nanushi*. The associations numbered 23 in Yedo.

Iyenushi managed affairs of the streets under *nanushi*. There were a few of them in a street. They tried to settle privately disputes arising between the land and house owners and the house-renters. They were chosen from among the house owners or the managers of rented houses. There were 20,117 *iyenushi* in Yedo towards the end of the Tokugawa period.

Gonin-gumi was the name given to quintettes of *iyenushi* under *nanushi*.

These *machi-doshiyori*, *nanushi* and *iyenushi* were called *machi-yakunin* (town officials). They could not evade responsibility for anything occurring in their streets. It was a saying then that the *iyenushi* should think of their *tanako* as their children and the *tanako* should consider their *iyenushi* as parents. In some cases, *iyenushi* could demand that *tanako* (house-renters) commiting reprehensible conduct should quit and notify all the houseowners in Yedo of such conduct so that they could not find any houseowner in the city, who was willing to rent his house to them. This was proper at the time, when the house owner was held responsible for the deeds of his tenants.

With regard to the *tsuji-ban* and *jishin-ban* the former was placed in the streets of the residential quarters of *daimyo* and *hatamoto* to guard against quarrels, outrages, robbery, fires and other incidents. The system was first introduced in the sixth year of Kan-ei (1629) by the Third Shogun Iyemitsu. Then *tsuji-giri* (cutting down passers-by with a sword in a street) was practised by a section of *samurai* to their new sword or to test their military ability. This was particularly guarded against by the above system.

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There were about 34 *tsuji-ban* outside the residential quarters, where it was very lonely. These were maintained at the Government's expense, and were called the *kogi-tsujiban* (official *tsujiban*).

One set up by *daimyo* beside their residences was called the *daimyo-hitori-mochi-tsujiban* (private *tsujiban* of *daimyo*). It was maintained at the *daimyo*'s expense. These *tsujiban* numbered 229.

One ordinary *tsujiban* was built and maintained jointly by two or more *hatamoto*. These *kumiai-tsujiban* (associated *tsujiban* numbered 669.

Besides, there were 21 others, which were under the control of the *ometsuke* or the *machi-bugyo*. The above mentioned *kogi-tsujiban*, which once numbered 87, was abandoned later, as their existence was rendered unnecessary by an increased number of those set up by *daimyo* and *hatamoto*.

In the eighth year of Kyoho (1,723), the total number of *tsujiban* in Yedo amounted to 919.

The *kogi-tsujiban* had six men, each three of whom served in shifts day and night. Each was granted a salary of 2 *ryo* yearly. Each box was paid 1 *ryo* as lighting cost.

The *daimyo-tyujidan* had 10 *ashigaru*, of whom 4 served during the day and 6 at night. It was under the supervision of the *yashiki-bugyo* or *yashiki-metsuke* of the *daimyo*.

The *kumiai-tsujiban* of the *hatamoto* had 8 men, of whom 3 served in the day and 5 at night. These men were supplied alternately by the *hatamoto* and no one aged more than 60 or less than 20 was allowed to serve by the Government, as the *hatamoto* had been used to put in service these comparatively useless men.

The official methods of the *tsujiban* and *jishinban* were as under:—

The *tsujiban* were open day and night so as to facilitate observation from the inside.

The watchmen were to occasionally patrol the place under their charge, and when they met roughs or wounded or suspicious persons, they were detained in the guard-house, until instructions were received from the supervising *metsuke*, to whom the matter was reported. It was not allowed to bind roughs with a cord.

Fights were to be stopped as far as possible. If this was impossible the matter was at once to be reported to the *metsuke*, while the winner was detained and the wounded given first aid. *Samurai* were not to be treated so except as provided by law.

A man dying on the road was to be watched and reported to the *metsuke* after examining his social position by means of his dress and belongings.

A man dying an unnatural death also was to be reported to the *metsuke* after examining wounds or bruises, if any. The corpse was to be covered with straw matting and watched so as not to interrupt traffic, until the coroner came.

Lost articles were to be kept in the *bansho* and reported to the *metsuke*. They were to be disposed of by the latter's direction.

A watchman concealing money not less than 1 *ryo* was punished with death. One dozing when a fire broke out and failing to report it to the *metsuke* was exposed to the public at the Nihon-bashi and was then expelled. Another extreme punishment inflicted was that those, who found a deserted child or a sick man in their patrol, but took no steps to rescue him or carried him privately to another place to evade responsibility were condemned to capital punishment. The *bansho* men were thus more strictly punished than the ordinary people.

The *jishinban* is a name originating in watching for fires voluntarily by the land and house owners.

Later, these land and house owners were represented by their managers, as they had too much business to attend to and did not otherwise like to work in the *bansho*. These watchmen later were under the direct control of the *machi-bugyo* and the *machi-doshiyori*. Their official methods were the same as of the *tsujiban*, the only difference being that the former were directed by the *metsuke* and the latter by the *machi-bugyo*.

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Tsuji-ban were different in size according to the financial position of the builders, *daimyo* or *hatamoto*, while the *jishinban* was legally fixed at 9 feet frontage, 15 feet in depth and 13 feet in height. *Tsujiban* tried to show their dignity with weapons, but *jishinban* had no such display, which was unworthy of tradesmen's watch houses, and was provided simply with fire extinguishing articles and cords. There was a square paper lantern arranged in front, with the street name written on it. Beside it was a notice-board.

One *jishinban* in a big street had 5 men in night, including 2 houseowners or their managers, 1 employee and 2 house renters. One in a small street had 3 men, or 1 house owner, 1 employee and 1 house renter.

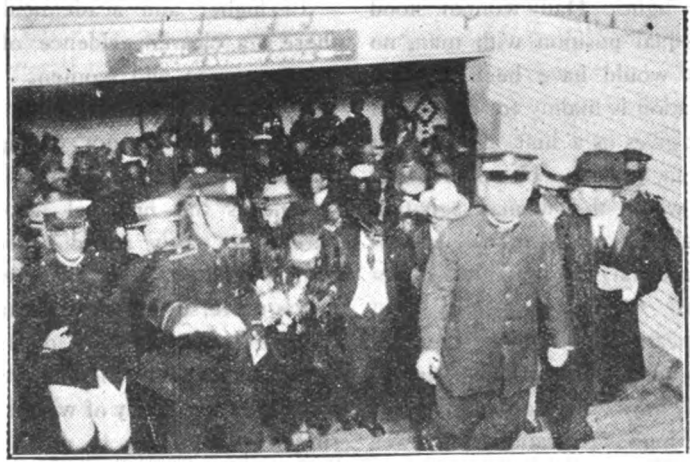
The chief object of the *jishinban* was to prevent fires and robbey. It was not allowed to gather and gossip in the *jishinban*.

Another sort of watchmen in Yedo was *kido-ban* (door-keepers). In Yedo as in present Tokyo, the side-streets had alleys, each of which was lined by tens of houses. These alleys were closed with a door at the entrance, where there was a watch-house, whose men were called *bantaro*. The door was left open during the summer and autumn nights but it was closed during the winter and spring nights at 10 P. M., after which communication with the inside was all through the side-door. When a stranger entered, the watchman beat clappers to call the attention of the residents. The watchman kept night-watch by making the round of the houses once in a hour or two, beating clappers. There were 30 buckets, filled with water, piled up on each side of the door, to provide against fires. There were a fire-bell and a look-out also for the purpose. The watch-house was 6 feet square, in which the watchman lived with his wife. He sold cakes, toys and other things for children.

During the Yedo period, no taxes were imposed on street lands, but on rice and other fields. Besides, there was a house tax paid by the houseowners at rates variable with the size of the houses. The *Jishinban* were maintained with this house tax, while the cost of the *banya* was borne by the streets.

These were the special features of the self-government system of Yedo and there was nothing else at the time, when the people were granted no political rights. Yet the system guaranteed a peaceful life to the Yedo people.

It is interesting to see that the great earthquake temporarily revived a custom abolished so long ago.



Ambassador and Mrs. Cylas E. Woods Leaving Tokyo for Yokohama to Embark Homeward Steamer.

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Feminine Agitations

By Professor I. ABE

Waseda University

THE various agitations existing at present, at least the more important agitations, are thought to have a peculiar significance, and to have as their end the removal of unequality or reformation.

The labour agitators try, in the writer's interpretation, to place themselves as much on the same footing as possible with the capitalists, who stand at too much distance from the labourers to allow their co-operation, which is a source of the labourers' great discontent. It may be same with the peasants' agitation, who wish to raise the tenants' position in relation to the landlords more towards equality. The so-called social agitation is prompted by the object to remove unequality. The socialist agitation does not have any such dangerous purpose as is supposed by some people, but aims at equalizing all men as far as possible, in all directions of social life.

The woman agitation must be regarded in the same light. Had woman stood ideally in an equal position with man, no such agitation would have been created. Since the agitation is mainly for the object of equality, it gives us a hint as to how it will develop in Japan. There are four directions, in which the woman agitation here will develop, the educational, economic, legal (or social) and political directions.

In the educational direction, there is absolutely no unequality in the primary education of boys and girls, but in secondary and higher education, the sexes are treated with great unequality. In equipment, the middle and higher girls' schools are nearly equal. When we observe how average parents think of the education of their middle school aged boys and girls, however, we find a great discrepancy between the two sexes. Parents do not appear to be awakened to the necessity of secondary education for their daughters as much as for their sons; the whole nation does not recognize the importance of much education for women.

It seems to the writer that the mass of the people send their girls to higher girls' schools simply to fit them for marrying middle class men. It is doubtful if even the educationists themselves truly understand the necessity of girls' education. Most people are inclined to give up the secondary education of their girls half way and to send them out for wage earning, as soon as they are not financially able to continue their education, while they manage somehow or other to give the same education to their boys.

In higher and academical education, there is a clearer evidence of unequality between men and women. The writer can point out three important reasons for such public indifference to higher female education.

One is the financial inability of the parents to easily afford to educate their girls as highly as their boys, who are sent to the university by some means or other. Another is that the spirit of independence is not yet imbued generally among professional women, many of whom are educated simply as a means to get a position and the majority of them soon get married, for which no higher education is required.

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Still another reason, which is perhaps most important, is the general impression that the bulk of women have less capacity than men for receiving college education. Women should not be satisfied with this condition, and an agitation ought to be started by them against the insult.

The writer cannot discover any such difference in talent between men and women. Some difference must be admitted, and this is simply the outcome of habits of long standing which is regrettable for women, who have for hundreds of years been confined to home as housekeepers, without the chance to improve their mental faculties as much as men. It is no wonder, therefore, that there is some difference in ability between men and women. This we see even in Europe and America, when we go back 70 or 100 years ago.

To-day American women are equally educated as men as a result of the profuse education given them during three or four generations. They are said to be even more proficient than men in the central and western universities of the United States. Japanese women may be highly educated generally and may be advanced in talent as much as men, in about two generations.

For this, a number of woman universities must be established under the University Law, conferring on the graduates the same titles as the existing universities for men do. The institutions will then soon have a full number of students filled with ambition.

The female education question must take the lead of woman questions, for educational freedom and equality are the first thing to be secured by Japanese women before legal, economical and political freedom and equality are obtained.

The elevation of women's position must be had by their economic independence. Here enters the economic question.

Truly, however, it is erroneous to consider the present social position of women simply as dependents of the men, as far as the great majority of the middle and lower class people is concerned, for the housewives have an important status as housekeepers and co-operators with their husbands in household management. Their work of cooking, washing, sewing and cleaning amounts in value to more than is paid for their food, dwelling and clothing. This is a share of the income drawn by them, so to speak, as a part of the cost of living of the family, which is not, therefore, borne entirely by the husband.

A wife getting monthly 50-70 yen wages by office and other work is said to be working together with her husband for a living. But all housewives do work worth 50-60 yen a month as managers of their domestic affairs.

But this work is not enough to elevate the social position of women and to insure their economic independence. When divorced, they can be economically independent, if they do not object to serve as maids or saleswomen. But the average middle class woman lacks courage to take such a position. Nor is she qualified for any higher position. This emphasises the necessity of higher education for women from the economic point of view. An uneducated woman will have no means to bring up her children herself, if the husband dies. Her education is a provision against such an emergency.

Another important economic question relating to women is that women are paid less than men for the same amount and the same nature of work. This is more

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apparent in Japan than any other country, and is irrational. Wages must be paid on the basis of ability and precedents and not in consideration of a family or no family depending on the earners. Practically, women are discriminated from men on this point, too. This must rapidly be eliminated.

Another is the legal question. There exists in law a great difference between men and women. This will be a principal factor in woman agitation in future, and is one in which women's activities are much called upon. The law allows husbands to petition to the court for divorce from unchaste wives, but wives can not lodge the same petition for separation from profligate husbands. This is evidently great legal unfairness. The Japan Christian Women's Society for the Reform of Manners has often presented a proposal to the Imperial Diet for revising this provision of law, but it seems to be far from being approved by it. Women's agitation will become more vigorous in this direction hereafter, for the situation must be quite intolerable to them.

Another part of the question is a very little right enjoyed by women regarding property. It is too comprehensive to be thoroughly discussed here. In succession to property, the daughter's portion is legally exceedingly less than the son's. All sons but the heir are also apportioned very moderately. Much less is the apportionment to the daughter. Such a law, based on the old household idea, must be rectified. In this connection, we have much to learn from the French laws.

Finally about the political side of the question, we have here the most significant problem to deal with in connection with woman's agitations, and its settlement will afford an easy means of the solution of the other questions. It is the woman suffrage question.

The universal suffrage question is seeking an urgent solution in Japan, and the writer wonders why woman suffrage is not advocated by those urging the early solution of that question, for the exclusion of women in universal suffrage is not the proper way of making it thoroughly good. When the point of argument of universal suffrage is applied to women, we can see no reason why women must be excluded. Probably, a strong agitation will be started by women for the right of election as soon as universal suffrage is put in practice, and a refusal thereof will excite the woman agitators to violent action, if we may quote a foreign example. If such a thing should occur, the responsibility must be laid at the door of the men, although we may deny any such violence by Japanese women.

The writer considers it necessary for men to treat women' desires in a sympathetic and co-operative spirit, so that women can accomplish their objects without going to the length of a severe agitation.

An agitation of this nature is liable to have opposition. In most cases, the oppositionists hold much mistaken ideas. The privileged class may appear to be very happy. Practically, however, it is the poorest of all social classes, for happiness is sought at the sacrifice of the conveniences and freedom of other classes and by placing the unprivileged classes in an unhappy position. We are most happy, when we are equal in position. The bulk of us do not think so. Men are a privileged class compared with women. Can they be happy? The writer does not consider them very happy as they look down upon women and treat them with contempt. True happiness lies in equality. No home can be happy, if the couple is not equal in position. Love must be mutual. True love must be founded on the mutual joy and understanding of both sexes standing on an equal footing. All relations between men and women must be mutual and equal, which brings true happiness to men by the enhancement of the position of women. In England and America, men and women enjoy great happiness, as they are equal. Japanese men unconsciously regard women as an inferior class. This misconception must be corrected by our efforts to bring about the equality of men and women by helping the women to agitate for it.

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Kawatake Mokuami

A Celebrated Modern Dramatist.

KAWATAKE Mokuami is celebrated as the last playwright of the Yedo period and the first dramatist of the Meiji era. During his 40 years of writing, he produced 360 original works, enough to honour him as a giant in the Japanese theatrical world.

Yoshijiro Yoshimura was his original name. For generations, his house sold fish wholesale. This was very lucrative business, which allowed the house to lead the showy and brilliant life of the Yeddokko (the Yedo people). His grand-father was a man of the world, adept in all sorts of light accomplishments, and was an epicurean. He squandered the family fortune.

His father was very chaste, quite unlike his grandfather. He gave up the hereditary business of the family and engaged in another of sounder nature. He married a samurai's daughter, of sweet temper. Mokuami was born in the 13th year of Bunka.

The blood of tradesman and samurai flew in his veins. He inherited the character of the grandfather as a man of the world, the sterling nature of the father and the tender character of the mother. These characteristics were visible in him throughout his whole life.

His diligent father made a fortune and set up a pawnbroker's business at Kanasugi, Shiba. He was with the father until he was 14 years of age, when he was disinherited, as he indulged in pleasures at restaurants with *geisha*. He was precocious and betrayed the character inherited from his grandfather.

For a time, he depended upon one of his relatives and wrote farces of *chaban* (then fashionable low comedy), in which he acted as comedian. He learned light accomplishments. The relative was a labour contractor patronized by *daimyo* and a man of chivalrous spirit. Many adventures and gamblers frequented this house, and he was associated with them. This turned him out a seemingly deprayed youth, while his experience in this wandering life furnished him with a great fund of materials for his successful play writing in the later part of his life.

His father was so strict as to disinherit him in the hope that it might correct the boy, and he gave one of his relatives 25 *ryo*, asking him to use it, if misfortune befel his son.

At the age of 17, Mokuami began to think seriously of an occupation and got employment in a lending library, which held numerous ballad drama and other play books, in which he was much interested. He devoted his spare time to reading these books while he got free entry to theatres and the rooms of their playwrights, where he imbibed theatrical knowledge.

At the age of 19, he was bereaved of his father. He did not care to succeed to his father's business, and transferred the inheritance, which he got again by the father's death, to his younger brother. He left the lending library and again took to a free and easy life with substantial support given by the younger brother.

He formed a company with men of the same taste in Shiba and led it himself in playing farces. Later, he published a book containing 55 farces, of which 7 were written by him. His ability in playwriting became publicly recognized.

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At the age of 19, he studied playwriting under Tsuruya Nanpoku the Fifth, through the introduction of Sawamura, his teacher of dancing, and in the year following, he secured employment as playwright in the Ichimura Theatre at Fukiya-cho. His professional name was Katsu Genzo. Practically, however, he wrote nothing, but was employed in miscellaneous duties.

In the meantime, he contracted an illness, which kept him from duty for a time. Soon the premature death of his younger brother occurred, which compelled him to succeed to the family business. At the age of 28, he was appointed the chief playwright of the Kawarasaki Theatre under the professional name of Kawatake Shinshichi the Second.

During the subsequent ten years, he wrote no plays. It was his training period, in which he simply revised or supplemented old plays, and had no occasion to manifest his true ability as a dramatist.

It was in the second year of Kayei (1849) that his new work was first published. It was entitled *Arigataya-Megumi-no-Kagekiyo*. The plot was that Taira-no-Kagekiyo, a surviving general of the Taira family, always prowling after Minamoto-no-Yoritomo the conqueror, a traditional hero, who was often dramatized, was freed from imprisonment in a rock jail. This was an allusion to a calamity brought upon Ichikawa Danjuro the Seventh by his luxurious life, on which charge he was expelled from Yedo, and he was allowed to return from Kyoto and Osaka after a long absence. This play was intended for presentation by the noted actor as *omemiye*.

Another dramatic work was written by Mokuami in the 4th year of Kaei (1851). It was his maiden effort in domestic drama and was entitled Enma Kohei.

In the third year of Ansei (1856), when he was at the age of 39, he wrote the *Azumakudari-Gojusantsugi* (Journey Down the Fifty-Three Stages of the Tokaido to Yedo) for Ichikawa Kodanji, another celebrated actor, who came first to Yedo from Osaka, where he became a pupil of Danjuro, and acted at the Ichimura Theatre. The play made a great hit. Another sensational work by him was the *Tsutamomiji - Utsunoya - toge* (Maple Tinged Utsunoya Pass). The former treated of Ten-ichibo, a young swindler personating a son of the shogun and coming to Yedo with a plot, which was upset by Oöka Yechizen-no-kami with his sharp eyes and the latter had as plot that a man, pressed for money for the sake of his master, killed Bunya, a blind man, in an attempt to plunder his money and was troubled by his conscience. Kodanji was small and not handsome, his voice being rather tuneless. His art was, however, realistic and full of passion, free from any exaggeration. This most qualified him as an actor in *sewa-mono* (domestic dramas of tradesmen). Mokuami was also more interested in this sort of drama than historical dramas, and wrote plays in a realistic manner. His works and Kodanji's acting were full of spirit. The two greatly respected each other.

For a number of years, Mokuami successfully produced a serious of new plays for Kodanji. In the first year of Manyen (1860), Shikan Nakamura (the father of the present Utayemon Nakamura) was brought from Osaka, confronting Kodanji as a formidable enemy. This new comer nearly overpowered the senior by dint of his handsomeness and skilful dancing, until Kodanji began to form the determination to leave for Osaka, if his next play was not a great success. The situation called for great resolution by Mokuami. He wrote Chijimiya Shinsuke, getting a hint from the murder of Miyokichi, a geisha, by her patron. The play was penetrating, lonely and impressive, the hero murdering the geisha, whom he loved better than life, upon becoming aware of being deceived by her. Mokuami produced this play as a contrast to Shikan's gay performances. This policy hit the mark. Kodanji thanked him, with great admiration for his ability.

In May of the 2nd year of Keio (1866), Mokuami wrote Ikakematsu.

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Kodanji played it. He was warned by the police against his too realistic acting. He was ill at the time and was so indignant that he fell into a critical condition and died at the age of 52. Mokuami, who thus lost his central figure, wrote then for young actors, such as Kasamori Osen for Sawamura Tanosuke and Benten-kozo for Ichimura Kakitsu (later Onoye Kikugoro the Fifth).

Soon, the Imperialists assumed the reins of government in the place of the Tokugawa Shogunate. After some theatrical changes, it became the age of Ichikawa Danjuro the Nineth and Onoye Kikugoro the Fifth, and Mokuami wrote dramas for these two central figures. Danjuro was adept in historical plays and Kikugoro in domestic dramas. Mokuami produced for the former the *Momoyama-monogatari* (the Momoyama Story) and the *Taiko-no-Ne-Chiyu-no-Sanryaku* and for the latter Kamiyui Shinza, all of which met with favourable criticism.

In the meantime, the theatrical world in Japan had entered upon a new stage. Many scholars advocated living historical pieces and attacked the vulgarity and absurdity of the old dramas. At the same time, modern literature began to be advocated, while most of the Government high officials, who were theatrical patrons, were from the provinces and could not understand the plays describing the life of of the tradesmen of Yedo.

Mokuami quickly saw this and produced works adapted to the new tendency. In 1877, he wrote Shigeru the woman student. This was his first production of the so-called *zangiri-mono* (cropped-hair drama), or plays of the new age, when all men had their hair cut short. Three years later, he wrote the *Konoma-no-Hoshi-Hakone-no-Shikabuye* (Stars among the Trees and a Deer Call in Hakone), the theme of which was that a murderer was tormented by a ghost. A feature of the play was that the ghost was a product of nervous reaction, whereas in old plays, it was treated as a real being. This is proof of how Mokuami possessed a penetrating eye into the transition of the age.

In the 14th year of Meiji, when he was 66 years old, he changed his professional name from Kawatake Shinshichi to Kawatake Mokuami. He wrote the *Shima-hidori-Tsuki-no-Shiranami* (a story of a robber) intended as his last product. The plot was that robbers reformed themselves under the impression of the change of the age. It implied the writer's confession or final settlement of his past works, most of which had robbers as heroes.

Mokuami wished to retire from the theatrical world on account of old age. But circumstances did not allow it. He had 47 pupils. but none was able to give excellent works to the stage in the place of his master. Even those who advocated the performance of new plays or theatrical improvements, could not write anything worthy of being put on the stage. Mokuami was, therefore, not allowed to retire, and he had to continue his theatrical life for another decade, in which he gave some other celebrated plays to Danjuro, Kikugoro and Sadanji (the adopted son of Kodanji). He died in the 26th years of Meiji (1893). at the of 78.

His historical dramas number 90 and his domestic dramas 130. All these works are free in delination. Comparatively speaking, he was better at domestic drama, which fact is evinced by the larger number of these dramas that he wrote. It was much easier for him to describe the life of tradesmen of his age, for it was nothing else than to depict his own experiences in the past vicissitudes of his life. Naturally, we can find more of his masterpieces among the domestic dramas than the others.

One feature of his plays is the praise of badness. All the characters of good nature in his age were given as very conservative, suppressing their feelings, while the bad men were described as speaking and acting freely at will. In this, Mokuami found interest. He wrote thoroughly of men doing ill deeds for ill purposes. It had the approval of the theater-goes of Yedo. It was the unconscious opposition of the Yedo people to stoical and unemotional Confucianism.

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This Mokuami cleverly made use of it in his dramatic writing. It was recognized that bad men had some virtuees as human beings.

Another peculiar feature, especially in his domestic drama was the description of men of mediocrity and not tradional heroes or uncommon people, few of whom appeared on the stage. This gave impression of reality to the spectators and aroused their interest and emotion. His work particularly well depict the life of Yedo tradesmen.

Still another feature is that his works are seemingly showy and ostentatious, but are in reality melanchorly and pathetic. This was the true representation of the popular spirit of the Yedo people towards the end of the Tokugawa shogunate, where all classes of people were in decadence and weariness, and although apparently they made merry, yet in reality, they had unspeakable uneasiness and melancholy in their minds. This cannot be found in Japanese literary products in other ages. It is the centre of attraction to youths of Yedo taste even today.

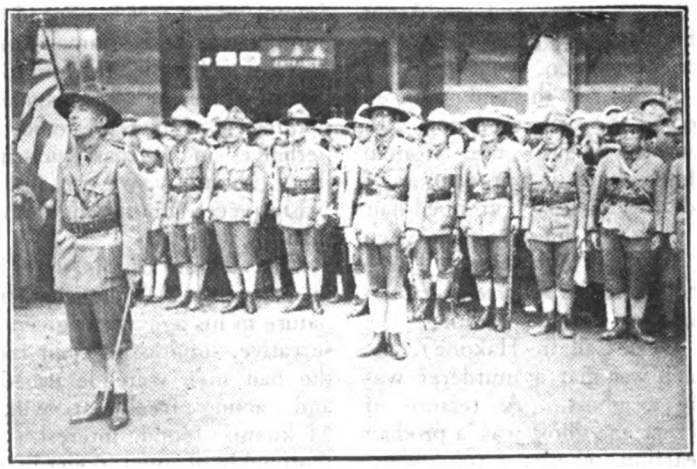
Finally, his plays have characteristic Japanese music to be played freely with changes in the action on the stage. These songs were partly newly composed by him particularly for the scenes. The spectators could enjoy freely an artistic sense of pleasure in the song.

Besides these dramas, there are 140 *shosa-goto* (posture-dances), by Mokuami, from which it may be seen how he mastered music in Yedo.

While his works have these characteristic attractions they have some defective points. They have too much diversification and are incoherent and poinless as is common in the literary products of the Tokugawa period. They are too full of the law of cause and effect, and are too narrow in the range of material, their chief characters being always prostitutes and robbers. They portray too much the vulgar and obsence, although such was simply the reflection of the life of the Yedo tradesmen and to meet the taste of the audiences of the periods.

His products in the Meiji era give a good description of its chaotic thoughts and manners.

His dramas are still played at big theatres and these plays are seen with interest by spectators of the new age, although they are found fault with by the critics of the younger generation.



Japanese Boy Scouts Leaving Tokyo Station to Attend the International Boy Scout Congress at Copenhagen.

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Japan's Oversea Trade

By S. MATSUMURA

Director of the Department of Agriculture and Commerce

THE oversea trade of Japan has made striking development during the past decade. Returns show that in 1913, it amounted to 1,361,000,000 yen, comprising 729,000,000 yen imports and 632,000,000 yen exports, a balance of 97,000,000 yen against us, and although both imports and exports fell off in 1914 due to the outbreak of the World War, yet they grew rapidly since then, until they stood at 4,272,000,000 yen in 1919, consisting of 2,173,000,000 yen imports and 2,099,000,000 yen exports with a balance of 74,000,000 yen against us. These figures for 1919 were unprecedentedly large and trebled the imports and exports of 1913.

A serious depression overtook the economic world at the beginning of 1920. This had a serious effect on our foreign trade, which sank abruptly through the slump of commodities, the inactivity of industry and the decline of purchasing capacity. The effect was severer in 1921, when the imports and exports amounted only to 1,614,000,000 yen and 1,253,-000,000 yen respectively, the former a loss of 25.7 per cent. and the latter of 40.3 per cent. from 1919. Later, it picked up. In 1923, it amounted to 3,435,000,000 yen, including 1,987,-000,000 yen imports and 1,448,000,000 yen exports with a balance of 539,000,000 yen against us.

The figures were less than those for 1919, the most prosperous year, but gained 23.1 per cent. and 15.5 per cent. over the imports and exports of 1921, a waning year, respectively. Again, the figures were 270 per cent. and 230 per cent. of the imports and exports for the year just preceding the war, respectively. The export trade for 1923 was, however, disproportionately small to the imports, owing to the great earthquake.

The following table exhibits the value of the foreign trade of Japan for the past eleven years:—

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Balance.	
1913...	729,431,644	632,460,213	96,971,431	Im.
1914...	595,735,725	591,101,461	4,634,264	„
1915...	532,449,938	708,306,997	175,857,059	Ex.
1916...	756,427,910	1,127,468,118	371,040,208	„
1917...	1,035,811,107	1,603,005,048	567,193,941	„
1918...	1,668,143,833	1,962,100,668	293,956,835	„
1919...	2,173,459,880	2,098,872,617	74,587,263	Im.
1920...	2,336,174,781	1,948,394,611	387,780,170	„
1921...	1,614,154,832	1,252,837,715	361,317,117	„
1922...	1,890,308,332	1,637,451,818	252,856,414	„
1923...	1,987,063,000	1,447,749,000	539,314,000	„

"Im" means an excess of imports over exports and "Ex" that of exports over imports.

The earthquake in Tokyo and vicinity in September last dealt a serious blow to Japanese industry besides unparalleled damage to life and property. Moreover, it lay waste Yokohama, the biggest port of Japan. This hindered greatly the export trade, while the import trade was very brisk with articles for relief and reconstruction purposes coming in floods, free of duty. In the meantime, both the Government and people acted properly and timely in concert in meeting the great calamity, thanks to which the export trade revived steadily.

The following table gives a comparison of the monthly amount of our foreign trade from September, 1923 to March, 1924 with that for the corresponding months of 1922-1923:—

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(In Thousands of Yen)

	1923	1922	Change Amount	Change Proportion Per Cent.	1921
September:					
Imports...	82,618	135,132	52,514 Dec.	38.9 Dec.	129,166
Exports...	74,809	149,981	75,172 „	50.1 „	95,842
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	7,809 Im.	14,849 Ex.			33,322 Im.
October:					
Imports...	144,545	106,686	37,859 Inc.	35.5 Inc.	130,374
Exports...	136,837	161,939	25,102 Dec.	15.5 Dec.	111,596
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	7,708 Im.	55,253 Ex.			18,778 Ex.
November:					
Imports...	156,664	116,875	39,789 Inc.	34.0 Inc.	151,955
Exports...	119,901	140,473	20,572 Dec.	14.7 Dec.	121,288
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	36,763 Im.	23,598 Ex.			30,667 Im.
December:					
Imports...	177,516	144,160	33,356 Inc.	23.2 Inc.	161,439
Exports...	146,520	158,447	11,927 Dec.	7.5 „	146,070
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	30,996 Im.	14,287 Ex.			15,369 Im.
Total (Sept-Dec.):					
Imports...	561,343	502,853	58,490 Inc.	11.6 Inc.	572,934
Exports...	478,067	610,840	132,773 Dec.	21.7 Dec.	474,797
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	83,276 Im.	107,987 Ex.			98,137 Im.
January:					
Imports...	214,210	149,529	64,681 Inc.	43.3 Inc.	178,806
Exports...	110,733	95,311	15,422 „	16.2 „	87,271
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	103,477 Im.	54,218 Im.			91,535 Im.
February:					
Import	294,114	156,287	137,827 Inc.	88.2 Inc.	197,542
Exports...	105,366	122,921	17,555 Dec.	14.3 Dec.	101,420
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	188,748 Im.	33,366 Im.			96,122 Im.
March:					
Imports...	305,536	198,065	107,471 Inc.	54.3 Inc.	207,344
Exports...	120,075	121,290	1,215 Dec.	1.0 Dec.	114,978
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	185,461 Im.	76,775 Im.			92,366 Im.
Total (January-March):					
Imports...	813,860	503,881	309,979 Inc.	61.5 Inc.	583,692
Exports...	336,174	339,522	3,348 Dec.	1.0 Dec.	303,669
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	477,686 Im.	164,359 Im.			280,023 Im.
Grand Total (September-March):					
Imports...	1,375,203	1,006,734	368,469 Inc.	36.6 Inc.	1,156,626
Exports...	814,241	950,362	136,121 Dec.	14.3 Dec.	778,466
Excess of Im. over Ex. or Ex. over Im. ...	560,962 Im.	56,372 Im.			378,160 Im.

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From the above figures, it may be seen that compared with the corresponding months of 1922-1923, the imports increased largely every month, except in September, 1923, when they decreased 38 per cent., with the maximum increase of 88 per cent. in February and the minimum increase of 23 per cent. in December, while on the other hand the exports fell off every month, except January, when they gained 16 per cent., with the maximum decrease of 50 per cent. in September and the minimum decrease of 1 per cent. in March, the grand total for the seven months showing an increase of 36 per cent. in imports and a decrease of 14 per cent. in exports.

Such a rapid growth of the import trade was caused by the importation of goods being expedited to bring them in while the temporary suspension of the import tariff was in force, up to April 1st.

In the period from September, 1923 to February, 1924, iron (bar, rod, sheet, plate, wire, tube and pipe) increased 42,850,000 yen, or 130 per cent. over the same interval, 1922-1923, claiming the first position among the goods that increased. Next comes wheat with the increase of 34,140,000 yen, or 300 per cent., followed by cleaned and uncleaned rice with the increase of 12,100,000 yen, or 140 per cent., soja beans with that of 9,530,000 yen, or 62 per cent., parts of automobiles with that of 5,410,000 yen, or 209 per cent., automobiles with that of 4,500,000 yen, or 468 per cent., cotton yarns with that of 3,440,000 yen, or 1,246 per cent., window glass with that of 3,300,000 yen, or 206 per cent., pine, fir, and cedar with that of 3,130,000 yen, or 172 per cent., and woolen cloths and other woolen fabrics with that of 3,010,000 yen, or 13 per cent.

The following table denotes the most valuable goods imported on the free list in the period from September 1st, 1923 to February 29th, 1924 and a comparison with the same interval, 1922-1923:—

(In Thousand of Yen)

Goods	Sept., 1923-Feb., 1924	Sept., 1922-Feb., 1923	Change Amount	Change Proportion
Cleaned and Uncleaned Rice	20,741	8,640	12,101 Inc.	140.0 Inc.
Wheat	45,321	11,181	34,140 „	300.5 „
Soja Beans	24,749	15,219	9,530 „	62.6 „
Fowl and Meat Canned or Potted	2,347	2,890	543 Dec.	18.7 Dec.
Condensed Milk	3,687	2,366	1,321 Inc.	55.5 Inc.
Volatile Oil	6,446	5,033	1,413 „	28.0 „
Drugs and Chemicals	1,834	5,811	3,977 Dec.	67.4 Dec.
Cotton Yarns	3,716	276	3,440 Inc.	124.63 Inc.
Woollen Cloths, Serges and Other Woollen Fabrics	25,854	22,840	3,014 „	13.2 „
Blankets	1,072	314	758 „	241.4 „
Paper (Writing and Wall)	1,181	866	315 „	36.3 „
Iron (Bar, Rod, Sheet, Plate, Wire, Tube and Pipe)	75,592	32,742	42,850 „	130.8 „
Rails	5,783	6,527	744 Dec.	11.3 Dec.
Building Materials (1)	2,438	1,584	854 Inc.	53.9 Inc.
Telegraphic and Telephone Apparatus and Parts Thereof	683	387	296 „	76.4 „
Mechanic Tools, Agricultural Implements and Parts Thereof	1,435	1,055	380 „	36.1 „
Stoves and Radiators	1,146	590	556 „	94.3 „
Meters	1,778	2,322	544 Dec.	23.4 Dec.
Glass	5,044	1,645	3,399 Inc.	206.6 Inc.
Automobiles (2)	5,462	961	4,501 „	468.3 „
Parts of Automobiles	8,002	2,583	5,419 „	209.6 „
Sewing Machine and Parts Thereof	5,285	3,119	2,166 „	69.4 „
Pine Fir and Cedar Not More Than 56 Millimetres in Thickness	4,951	1,814	3,137 „	172.9 „
Tard Felt	653	270	383 „	141.8 „

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(1) includes fish-plates and other railway building materials, and house, bridge and dock building materials, gas-holders, liquid tanks and parts thereof.

(2) include cars other than trucks under reduced duty.

During the past three years, oil cake, lumber, wool, woolen fabrics, peas and beans, sulphate of ammonia and coal increased yearly, while a comparative few, machinery, sugar, etc. were on the decrease. Raw cotton, iron, wheat, woolen fabrics, cleaned and uncleaned rice, and crude rubber increased, generally.

The following table exhibits the value of these staple imports for the past three years:—

(In Thousands of Yen)

Goods	1923	1922	1921
Raw Cotton	513,073	427,836	438,172
Iron (Pig, Ingot, Bar, Rod, Sheet, Plate, Wire, Tube and Pipe)	121,771	153,883	145,118
Machinery	103,940	114,496	119,882
Oil Cake	109,646	98,521	94,311
Lumber	89,529	84,825	43,476
Wool	81,893	55,360	32,202
Woolen Yarn	73,826	48,471	15,173
Sugar	52,629	63,937	69,815
Peas and Beans	50,367	39,605	24,691
Wheat	47,480	58,901	31,551
Woolen Fabrics	47,098	50,044	31,084
Cleaned and Uncleaned Rice	31,349	61,328	28,813
Sulphate of Ammonia	24,947	11,237	11,006
Coal	24,365	16,819	14,093
Crude Rubber	19,327	11,311	15,724
Copper	?	14,969	8,408

Turning to the export trade cotton fabrics, earthen and porcelain wares, hosiery manufactures, marine products, iron wares, peas and beans only were on the increase, and raw silk, silk fabrics, teas, and braids for hat making show more or less gain, but coal, paper, lumber, and matches decreased remarkably, cotton yarns, refined sugar, machinery, waste and floss silks, glass and glass manufactures had some ups and downs.

Appended is the value of these staple exports for the past three years:—

(In Thousands of Yen)

Goods	1923	1922	1921
Raw Silk	568,370	671,365	417,124
Cotton Fabrics	234,499	222,145	203,673
Silk Fabrics	92,369	107,930	89,935
Cotton Yarn	78,613	114,725	80,568
Earthen and Porcelain Wares	23,465	21,214	20,791
Coal	21,545	23,520	37,814
Hosiery Manufactures	21,205	17,660	12,892
Marine Products	21,020	18,521	14,569
Teas	16,010	17,826	7,718
Paper	15,233	16,141	18,939
Refined Sugar	14,742	19,127	15,799
Lumber	12,342	14,203	15,326
Iron Manufactures	11,476	10,499	9,112
Machinery	10,904	15,252	12,883
Matches	10,649	15,556	16,239
Waste and Floss Silks	10,463	14,514	10,367
Glass and Glass Manufactures	10,145	10,317	9,997
Braids for Hat Making	9,982	11,294	7,031
Peas and Beans	7,444	7,149	4,036

Japan's oversea trade was on the way to recovery since 1921, when it was at the bottom, until last year, when the great earthquake occurred, giving a severe blow to the export trade and producing a great excess of imports over exports. This has been a temporary phenomenon, and in fact, the modern trade and industry of Japan have made marked progress with the industrial organization bettered and the industrial products improved. The Japanese Government and people are co-operating energetically in fostering this tendency.

A moon-lit eve
A Glimpse of sea
[Through] the summer grove.

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The Agriculture of Japan*

JAPAN, "Mizuho-no-kuni" (the land blessed with rice), has been known as an agricultural country since ancient times, the bulk of the people having been interested in agricultural industries.

Before the Meiji Restoration, agricultural pursuits were greatly encouraged by the Government, and in the Tokugawa period, the farmer was ranked next to the samurai, the artificer and merchant being below the farmer in rank.

In the Meiji era, when the Imperial rule was restored, trade and industry were much elevated in position with the opening and development of international commerce and the introduction of foreign civilization. In the meantime, agriculture fell behind the two other essentials of national existence in progress as a whole. Still it has been followed by the mass of the people and has been much improved under the lessons of foreign civilization.

Returns in 1921 show the total number of houses in Japan to be 10,570,000, of which 5,573,000 or 52 per cent. belonged to farmers. From this, we may conclude that one-half of the Japanese houses are farmhouses. The agricultural land in the country is proportionately great. In 1920, the total arable land in the country had the acreage of 6,148,000 *chobu*, comprising 3,040,000 *chobu* of wet fields and 3,110,000 *chobu* of ordinary fields; this is 16 per cent. of the total area of Japan, or 38,874,000 *chobu*. At the same time, there were uncultivated lands to the extent of 3,509,000 *chobu*, or 9 per cent. of the total area of Japan. Arable lands have been yearly on the increase with the progress of farming and the increase of farmers, the cultivation and conversion of lands and the reclamation of seas and lakes.

The following table shows the total number of houses and farmhouses in Japan in the twelve years ending 1920 and the proportion of farmhouses to the total giving a clear idea as to the development of husbandry in that period:—

Year	Total Number of Houses No.	Farmhouses No.	Proportion of Farmhouses to the Total Per Cent
1910 ...	9,121,156	5,497,918	60.3
1911 ...	9,362,517	5,500,484	58.7
1912 ...	9,522,569	5,521,035	58.0
1913 ...	9,591,181	5,527,188	57.6
1914 ...	9,693,026	5,539,226	57.1
1915 ...	9,833,970	5,535,008	56.1
1916 ...	9,995,176	5,542,324	55.4
1917 ...	10,116,144	5,551,558	54.9
1918 ...	10,234,966	5,561,053	54.3
1919 ...	10,442,193	5,566,401	53.3
1920 ...	10,570,145	5,573,097	52.7

The following table exhibits the arable lands in the same period as above:—

Year	Wet Fields "Chobu"	Other Fields "Chobu"	Total "Chobu"
1910 ...	2,910,970.8	2,804,434.5	5,715,405.3
1911 ...	2,923,520.8	2,836,002.8	5,759,522.8
1912 ...	2,939,455.3	2,880,301.1	5,819,756.4
1913 ...	2,953,947.2	2,902,345.5	5,856,392.7
1914 ...	2,961,639.5	2,916,569.9	5,878,208.9
1915 ...	2,974,042.8	2,948,075.5	5,922,118.3
1916 ...	2,987,578.2	2,971,800.4	5,959,379.6
1917 ...	3,005,679.4	3,012,685.2	6,018,364.6
1918 ...	3,010,964.4	3,070,073.0	6,081,037.4
1919 ...	3,030,044.0	3,105,033.6	6,135,076.6
1920 ...	3,042,280.3	3,105,690.0	6,147,970.5

In 1920, 3,904,000 houses, or 70 per cent., represented those exclusively engaged in farming and 1,668,000 houses, or 30 per cent., those partially engaged in it. Again, there were 1,740,000 yeomen or 31 per cent., 1,570,000 tenants or 28 per cent. and 2,260,000 yeomen and tenants, or 40 per cent. Yeomen have been decreasing and tenants increasing in proportion of late.

Agricultural products are increasing yearly in Japan. The following table gives the average amount of the principal agricultural products in the past five years:—

Farm Products:

Kind	Amount in 10,000 "Koku"
Rice	5,770
Soja Beans	380
Foxtail Millet	196
Sweet Potatoes	108,746
Leaf Tobacco	1,204
Shititoi (Push)	300

*This article is based on official information and statistics got from the Bureau of Agriculture.

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Kind	Amount in 10,000 "Koku"
Sugar	14,039
Oranges	6,565
Pears	2,639
Soy Beans	28,071
Barley, Wheat, Rye, Etc.	2,294
Small Beans	90
Buckwheat	106
Potatoes	33,849
Rush	1,034
Teas	6,290
Rapeseed	88
Apples	783
Persimmons	4,142
Clover	88,778

Stock-Farm Products:

Kind	Amount in 1,000 Head
Oxen	209
Pigs	325
Horses	113
Fowls	11,314

Sericultural Products:

Kind	Amount in 10,000 "Koku"
Cocoons	554
Raw Silk	557
Doupions	61
Silkworm Eggs	87,405

The above products may be divided into vegetable and animal products, for convenience's sake in explanation. The former is very comprehensive in range and very variable in use, and so it may be subdivided into food products, industrial products and food-stuffs:—

1. Vegetable Products:

(a) Food Products.—These products comprise the staple kinds of regular Japanese food such as rice, barley, wheat, soja beans, foxtail millet, buckwheat, sweet potatoes, potatoes, corn, barn-yard millet and proso millet. The planted area of these products amounts to 6,400,000 *chobu*, 79 per cent. of the total planted area of general important farm products.

Rice comes first of all the farm products in Japan and has a planted area of 3,130,000 *chobu*, 50 per cent. of the total planted area of general important farm products, with the yearly yield of 55,000,000 *koku*. Rice has been exceedingly on the increase in recent years with the increased use of manures, the improvement of species and the progress of cultivation. The average yield of the five years 1916-1920 shows an increase of 33 per cent. over that of the five years 1901-1905, while the planted area increased only 8 per cent., as may be seen from the following table:—

Year	Planted Area "Chobu"	Yield "Koku"	Yield Per Tan "Koku"
Yearly Average 1901-1905	2,864,190.3	43,984,556	1,536
1906	2,898,792.9	46,302,530	1,597
1907	2,806,091.9	49,052,065	1,688
1908	2,922,387.8	51,933,893	1,777
1909	2,938,073.8	52,437,665	1,785
1910	2,944,439.9	46,633,376	1,581
1911	2,973,073.2	51,712,433	1,739
1912	3,003,052.9	50,222,509	1,672
1913	3,029,705.2	50,255,267	1,659
1914	3,033,368.5	57,006,541	1,879
1915	3,056,567.1	55,924,590	1,829
1916	3,071,165.0	58,442,386	1,903
1917	3,083,782.1	54,568,067	1,769
1918	3,093,210.2	54,699,087	1,768
1919	3,104,611.4	60,818,163	1,959
1920	3,126,315.8	63,219,162	2,022
1921	3,153,328.3	55,181,053	1,761

Barley, wheat and rye are next in importance to rice. In 1921, their planted area stood at 1,800,000 *chobu*, 21 per cent. of the total planted area of general important farm products. For the same year, the yield of barley amounted to 9,000,000 *koku*, that of rye to 7,000,000 *koku* and that of wheat to 6,000,000 *koku*, making the total of 22,000,000 *koku*.

The yearly average of 1916-1920 increased 28 per cent. in production over that of 1901-1905, while the planted area decreased 3.2 per cent. Of this increased production, barley shared 7 per cent., rye 27 per cent. and wheat 77 per cent., the planted area of the lastmentioned of which increased 17 per cent.

Soja beans had a planted area of 450,000 *chobu* and a production of 3,810,000 *koku*, both of which have been on the increase of late years. Sweet potatoes had a planted area of 318,000 *chobu* and a production of 1,180,000,000 *kwamme*. White potatoes had a planted area of 120,000 *chobu* and a production of 290,000,000 *kwamme*. Both are increasing yearly.

To this must be added wheat flour and starch, the former of which is one of the

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most important agricultural products with a production of 720,000,000 *kin* valued at 99,000,000 yen for 1920. Flour milling was started after the Japan-Russia War. A large amount of wheat flour was still imported yearly until 1907, but the domestic industry so developed in the meantime that the exportation of the goods was made to the value of 2,000,000 yen in 1915. The figure reached 14,000,000 yen for 1917. It fell off, however, since 1918 and amounted only to 360,000 yen.

As to starch, its yearly yield before the European War was only 31,000,000 *kin* valued at 2,000,000 yen. Later, the volume swelled to meet a remarkable increase in foreign requirements and increased over the average for the past five years by 130,000,000 *kin* in quantity and 14,000,000 yen in value, an increase of 670 per cent. over the above figures. Common potato starch is most important and takes up 70 per cent. of the total yield. Next comes sweet potato starch. There are other kinds such as of corn, bracken, arrowroot and dog-tooth violet, although they are limited in production.

(b) Industrial Agricultural Products.— The planted area of these agricultural products is about 350,000 *chobu*. It comprises mainly teas, leaf tobacco, sugar, rapeseed, rush, *konnyaku*, *mitsumata*, paper mulberry and straw braids. In 1921, the production of teas amounted to 29,000,000 yen, of which 17,000,000 yen was exported. Their yield increased remarkably until about 1897 and then decreased a little. It has been again somewhat on the increase these ten years.

The export of teas developed markedly until about 1894, but later it declined somewhat due to competition with Indian and Ceylon teas in the foreign markets. During the European War, the volume rose again, but it fell off suddenly after that, and the latest returns show it to be less than one-half of the record figure in the past. The producing centres of teas are Shizuoka, Miye, Kyoto, Nara, Kagoshima, Kumamoto, Ibaraki and Shiga Prefectures. In 1921, there were 1,151,329 tea growers producing 56,111,325 *kin* of teas valued at 29,571,731 yen.

In 1920, the planted area of cane sugar stood at 29,000 *chobu*, producing 130,000,000 *kin* of sugar. Okinawa Prefecture and Oshima (in Kagoshima Prefecture) are known as the centres of production of sugar. The products are mostly brown sugar and partly molasses. Sugar cane cultivation and sugar manufacturing were carried on extensively from old times in Shikoku, Kyushu, Chugoku, Kinai and Tokaido Districts. But the industry declined under the competition of foreign sugar from about 1882. Later, official protection and encouragement were given to the plantation of sugar cane in Okinawa, Oshima and Ogasawara-jima (Bonin Islands), thanks to which the sugar industry improved.

(c) Food-Stuffs. — Mulberry gardens producing the food of the silkworm extended over the area of 534,000 *chobu* in 1920, an increase of 71 per cent. over the average of the five years 1900-1904.

2. Animal Agricultural Products:

These products are raw silk and cattle. Raw silk stands at the head of the export list of Japan, and cocoons are produced everywhere in the country as a side product by the farmers. In 1920, the production of cocoons in Japan amounted to 6,333,000 *koku*, an increase of 140 per cent. over the average of the five years 1900-1904. Of this amount, 3,159,000 *koku* was spring cocoons, 696,000 *koku* summer cocoons and 2,477,000 *koku* autumn cocoons, an increase of 73 per cent., 88 per cent. and 443 per cent. respectively over the average for the five years 1900-1904. At the same time, the production of raw silk stood at 5,833,000 *kwamme*, an increase of 200 per cent. over the average of the five years 1900-1904. This amount comprised filatures with 4,860,000 *kwamme*, hand-reels with 521,000 *kwamme* and doupions with 443,000 *kwamme*, an increase of 346 per cent. and 215 per cent. for filatures and doupions respectively over the average of the five years 1900-1904, while hand-reels decreased 26 per cent. At the same time, the production of noshi silk reached 165,000 *kwamme*, that of kibizo and other wastes 1,677,000 *kwamme* and that of floss

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silk 127,000 *kwamme*, an increase of 9 per cent., 173 per cent. and 74 per cent. respectively over the average of the five years 1905-1909. There were in the same year 9,835 silkworm egg raisers, with the production of 818,080,000 moths, of which 792,870,000 moths were common eggs and 25,210,000 special moths.

Stock-breeding is carried on by farmers, also as a side line. Returns for 1920 show the number of oxen to be 1,376,000 head, that of horses to be 1,470,000 head, that of sheep to be 8,500 head, that of goats to be 133,000 head and that of pigs to be 530,000 head. As compared with the average of the five years 1900-1904, oxen increased 9 per cent., sheep 250 per cent., goats 120 per cent. and pigs 164 per cent., while horses decreased 2 per cent. Of the above number, 1,073,914 head were oxen for farming and 1,150,-702 head of horses for farming. Milch-cows numbered 50,000 with 352,000 *koku* of milk valued at 20,113,000 yen.

The figures for poultry stood in the same year at 13,715,000 farmyard fowls, and 173,000 ducks, chicken numbering 11,278,000 fowls and 236,000 ducks and eggs 1,134,360,000 for farmyard fowls, and 7,830,000 for ducks.

The foregoing statics do not include Formosa, Korea and Japanese Saghalien.

Experimental Field of the Hokkaido Imperial University

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The Marine Products Industry of Japan*

THE Empire of Japan, east of the Continent of Asia, is sea girt in all directions, except in the north of Korea, where it borders on China and Russia. The southern extremity of her territories lies at lat. 21° 45' N., at the southern end of Formosa the northern extremity at lat. 50° 56' N. at the northern end of the Kurile Islands, the eastern extremity at long. 156° 20' E. at the eastern end of the Kurile Island and the western extremity at long. 119° 18' E. at the west end of the Pescadores. There are numerous islands scattered over these territorial waters. Her Kurile Islands belong to the frigid zone and her Pescadores to the tropical zone. She has the shape of a long serpent and is narrow in width. Her coast line is very long for her area of land, and extends over 7,423 "ri", or about 15,000 miles of which 5,524 "ri" belongs to Japan proper and 1,889 "ri" to her territories. There are many good harbours along the coasts, into which empty numerous rivers.

Warm and cold currents flow in the adjacent Japanese waters, the former being the Japan sea current commonly known as the Black Stream and the latter the Kurile and Riman currents.

A great variety of fish inhabit the seas, and shell fish and seaweed abound everywhere off the coasts. Japan has naturally advanced in marine productions as the wealth of her waters has developed since ancient times, and it claims a very important position among her industries. The Japanese get albumen for their food mainly from marine products, in which respect the latter is equally important as rice for them.

The following tables will serve to show how Japan's marine products industry stands:—

Fishers and Fishing Boats:

Year	Fisher, No.	Fishing Boats With Motor No.	Fishing Boats Without Motor No.	Total No.
1915...	1,376,750	2,516	393,073	395,589
1916...	1,365,954	2,800	391,901	394,701
1917...	1,394,479	2,978	384,242	387,220
1918...	1,390,625	2,266	381,854	385,120
1919...	1,365,458	4,032	380,577	384,609
1920...	1,335,555	5,785	377,780	383,565
1921...	1,391,871	6,217	375,983	382,200

The number of fishers in 1921 includes fishers, manufacturers and those engaged in the rearing of fish.

Catches:

Year	Littoral Fishery Yen	Pelagic Fishery Yen	Total Yen
1913 ...	95,065,000	18,575,000	113,640,000
1914 ...	95,053,000	16,880,000	111,933,000
1915 ...	94,836,004	20,207,352	115,043,356
1916 ...	102,242,143	22,527,412	124,769,555
1917 ...	123,233,429	32,751,664	155,985,093
1918 ...	171,185,081	53,600,648	224,785,729
1919 ...	246,833,674	54,086,176	300,919,850
1920 ...	270,294,228	64,898,787	335,193,015
1921 ...	258,226,053	74,087,842	332,313,896

Production:

Year	Amount Yen
1907 ...	39,267,195
1908 ...	35,491,742
1909 ...	35,230,546
1910 ...	38,506,167
1911 ...	41,559,106
1912 ...	49,253,111
1913 ...	51,726,574
1914 ...	52,174,902
1915 ...	54,809,362
1916 ...	63,999,501
1917 ...	84,543,653
1918 ...	112,263,553
1919 ...	164,378,370
1920 ...	149,521,516
1921 ...	169,598,117

Fish Culture:

Year	Nurseries No.	Area "Tsubo"	Products Yen
1907 ...	27,592	81,766,096	2,823,263
1908 ...	30,109	91,418,477	2,873,177
1909 ...	47,295	106,314,806	3,027,430
1910 ...	55,604	107,664,636	3,808,028
1911 ...	68,715	138,907,568	3,676,921
1912 ...	71,369	120,081,907	4,106,986
1913 ...	73,288	147,006,989	4,150,786
1914 ...	84,604	142,884,843	4,087,228
1915 ...	96,230	168,016,480	4,555,043
1916 ...	104,529	173,523,625	5,238,588
1917 ...	106,855	185,851,648	6,388,021
1918 ...	104,299	178,435,755	8,262,092
1919 ...	102,065	183,837,259	11,590,592
1920 ...	102,488	169,943,066	13,283,372
1921 ...	105,530	199,209,513	19,671,585

*This article is based on official information and statistics obtained from the Marine Products Bureau.

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Herring, sardines, sea-beam, bonito, yellow-tails, mackerel, tunnies, halibut, horse-mackerel and cod-fish in salt water and salmon, trout and sweet-fish in fresh water form the principal fishes taken in the littoral fisheries. Besides, lobsters, sea-cars and "konbu" may be counted among the former group.

To classify these fishes according to districts, the Pacific coast is very long with the east coast of the mainland and Shikoku and Kyushu, and it is the most important Japanese fishing ground. Here are taken chiefly bonito, tunnies, sardines, sea-beam and mackerel, and the bays and inlets abound in shell fish and edible sea-weed.

The Japan Sea products are principally sardines, mackerel, yellow-tails, cod-fish, etc. Sardines, mackerel and yellow-tails come in abundantly to the part south of the centre, where their take is very large, although shell fish and edible sea-weed are relatively small.

In the direction of Hokkaido, we have herring, salmon, trout and "konbu" as the chief products, quite different from the other waters.

In the south the varieties are comparatively few but large quantities are taken.

The fishing implements and methods employed in the littoral fisheries are very much and the principal of them are gill nets, draw nets, purse seines, set nets, angling by hand line, long lines, etc.

In 1907, the products of littoral fishery amounted to 62,000,000 yen, and the value more than doubled in 1921, when it amounted to 258,000,000 yen, the average yearly increase being 13,900,000 yen.

Pelagic fishery was started only recently, when fur-seal hunting took the lead. In March, 1897, the Pelagic Fishery Encouragement Law was promulgated. Since then, fur-seal hunting has made steady headway. The number of sealers was only 9 the year before the issue of the law, but it grew to 50 in 1911, when the take reached the value of 700,000 or 800,000 yen.

In the meantime, the Government considered means to protect the seals in co-operation with the English, American and Russian Governments, and vetoed hunting for the period of 15 years beginning December 15, 1911. Simultaneously, it took important measures for encouraging fishery, including the training of pelagic fishermen and the improvement of pelagic schooners. Consequently, pelagic fishery made strides, and different kinds were established one after another, such as whaling, trawling, long line fishing by engine boat cod-fish augting by hand line motor-boat fishing and improved disposal and carrying of the take.

At present, pelagic schooners number over 6,000, their yearly business amounting to upwards of 100,000,000 yen.

The above does not cover the colonial fishery carried on in Korea, Kwantung Province, Formosa, Karafuto and the mandatory South Sea Islands. Fishing in the Korean seas by the Japanese dates far back. It was greatly encouraged by the prefectures in Chugoku, Kyushu and other parts of Japan since 1895, and as a result 5,312 Japanese fishers settled in Korea in 1915, holding 1,263 fishing boats and catching fish valued at 2,150,000 yen. At the same time, there were 11,570 fishers going out from Japan with 2,843 boats and taking products valued at 3,837,000 yen. Since then, the settlers increased greatly and reached 13,710 in 1921 with 2,539 fishing boats and taking the value of 6,825,000 yen, which doubled or trebled the figures of 6 years previously, although the outgoing fishers did not increase so remarkably and stood at 10,147 with 2,375 fishing-boats and a take of 3,250,000 yen. The chief fish taken are sea-beam, halibut, mackerel, gray-mullet, sardines, hair-tails, etc., most of which are imported raw into Japan.

In 1921, there were 14,600 Korean fishing boats and 318,000 Korean fishers taking fish valued at about 100,000,000 yen. These figures indicate the considerable development attained by Korean fishery in recent years, thanks to constant efforts made to lead and encourage it; and it promises to become much more important in future.

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Fishing off Kwantung Province by the Japanese was started during the Japan-Russia War. In 1922, there were 178 fishing boats and 867 fishers going to that sea. Besides, the Japanese settlers numbered 148 living in 81 houses, bringing the total number of Japanese fishers engaged in the fishery up to 1,015. These men were chiefly from Kumamoto, Ehime, Oita and Kagawa Prefectures. The chief methods of fishing used there are sea-bream long line fishing, trawling, etc.

The yearly take comes to 384,000 "kwamme" valued at 567,000 yen, besides which the whales taken have the value of 150,000 yen. The chief fish caught there are sea-beam, halibut, "saba", "suzuki", "nibe", "kingashira", yellow-tails, sharks etc. The fishing implements and methods employed there are on too small a scale to ensure the steady development of the local fishery, which is at a low ebb. The local Chinese fishermen numbered 14,170, living in 7,064 houses in 1922, with 961 junks and 4,019 small boats, their catch amounting to 2,550,000 "kwamme" valued at 1,193,000 yen.

In 1912, Formosa had 117,000 Japanese and native fishers with 9,450 fishing boats and taking products valued at 992,000 yen. In 1921, the fishers increased to 118,800, the fishing boats to 8,970 and the catch to 5,943,000 yen. The number of Japanese employed in the local fishery increased steadily, while the native fishers remained nearly unchanged in number. The Japanese began fishing there after the Japan-China War in 1894-1895, and increased to 133 in 1900, to 234 in 1907, to 917 in 1912, to 1,932 in 1916 and to 2,497 in 1921, which is eleven times as much as the figure of 15 years ago and nineteen times as much as the figure of 20 years ago. At the same time, the catch trebled in five years and sextupled in ten years. The principal fish taken are sea-beam, sardines, bonito, sharks, tunnies, mackerel, horse-mackerel, etc.

The Japanese had been interested in fishery off the coast of Karafuto much earlier than the conclusion of the agreement for the exchange of the Kurile Islands and Karafuto in 1875, and the number increased markedly since a part of the island passed into Japanese possession as a result of the Japan-Russia War. In 1922, the Japanese engaged in fishing there numbered 3,350 with 11,800,000 yen value of the take, nearly double the figure of a decade before. The stationary fishing of herring is most important there, and salmon, codfish, trout, crab, halibut and "konbu" (sea-weed) come next.

The mandatory South Sea Islands have territorial waters of 2,000 nautical miles east and west and of 1,000 nautical miles south and north, and tunnies, bonito and other fish abundantly migrate there. There are no exact returns available as yet regarding the Japanese fisheries in those waters. Much may be hoped in this direction, for the Japanese Government is making energetic efforts to develope the fisheries there.

Japanese fishing off the coast of the Russian Maritime Province made steady headway after the conclusion of the Japanese-Russian Fishing Treaty in 1907. At present 300 or 400 fishing grounds are owned there by the Japanese, which produce 600,000 or 700,000 "koku" of fish valued at 30,000,000 or 40,000,000 yen. The number of fishing steamers increased steadily and stands now at 300 with the aggregate tonnage of 200,000. The fishermen number 20,000 and the capital invested amounts to 40,000,000 yen. The canning of salmon and trout was started there in 1910 and at present, it yearly comes to 15,000,000 yen in value. The canned crab industry has likewise made striking progress there since it was started in 1920, its yearly product being placed now at 1,500,000 yen. River and lake fishing there is no less important than the above two lines of canning, for the fishermen interested in it number over 100,000 and their yearly products reach 20,000,000 yen with prospects of increase year after year.

The chief fish caught there are salmon, trout, sweet-fish, carps, eels, etc., the

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total of which taken in 1921 came to the value of 22,650,000 yen.

Fish-farming in Japan surpasses that of any other country in the world in volume, in important prospects and in the progress of special studies. It is divided into fresh and salt water cultures and its yearly products amount to 97,696,230 "kwamme" valued at 65,391,429 yen.

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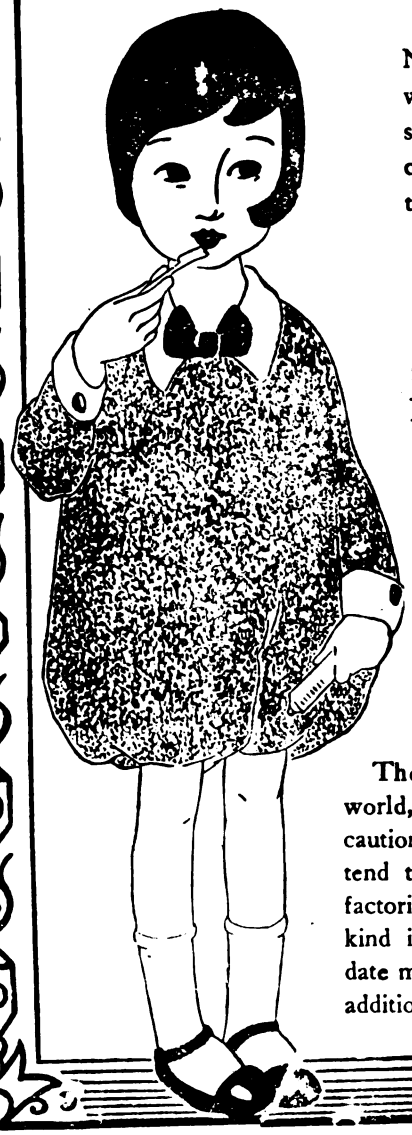

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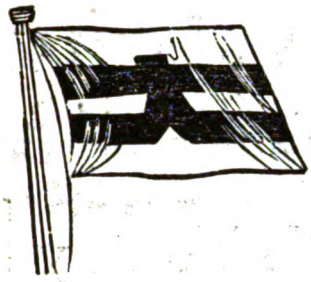

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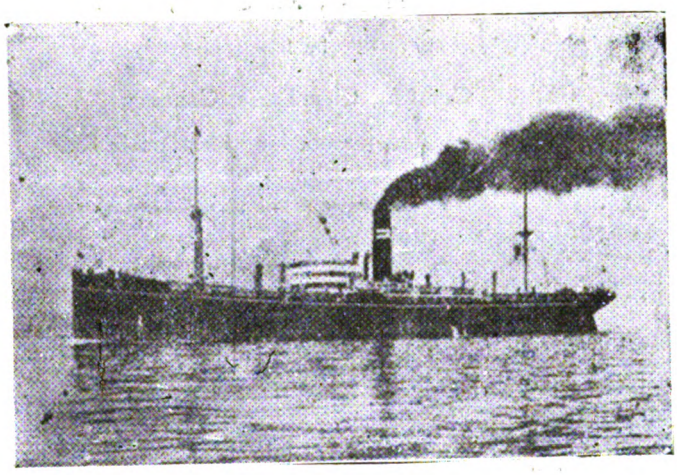

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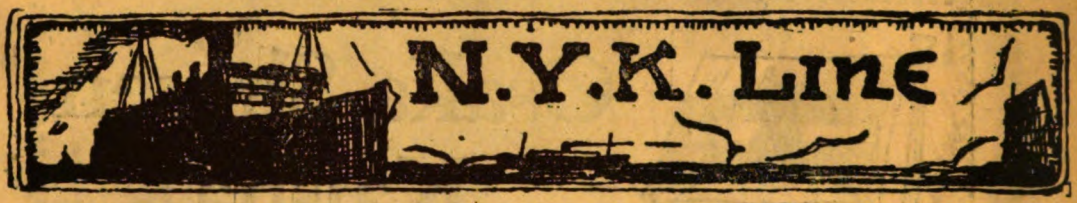

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